





UNITED STATES COMMISSION OF FISH AND FISHERIES.



PART XIV.

REPORT

OF

THE COMMISSIONER

FOR

1886.

A.—INQUIRY RESPECTING FOOD-FISHES
AND THE FISHING GROUNDS.

B.—PROPAGATION OF FOOD-FISHES.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1889.

Resolved by the Senate (the House of Representatives concurring), That the report of the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries for the year 1886 be printed; and that there be printed 11,000 extra copies, of which 3,000 shall be for the use of the Senate, 6,000 for the use of the House of Representatives, 1,500 for the use of the Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, and 500 for sale by the Public Printer, under such regulations as the Joint Committee on Printing may prescribe, at a price equal to the additional cost of publication and 10 per cent. thereto thereon added, the illustrations to be obtained by the Public Printer, under the direction of the Joint Committee on Printing.

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* In Jordan and Goss's Review of the Flounders and Soles of America and Europe.

† In Jordan and Eigenmann's Review of the Sciaenidae of America and Europe.

‡ In Linton's Notes on Entozoa of Marine Fishes of New England.

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* In Fewkes' Report on Medusæ from the Gulf Stream.

† In Drs. Bettini and Vinciguerra's Notes on the Fish-cultural Establishments of Central Europe.

‡ In Tanner's Report on Work of the Albatross.

§ In Collins' Report on Operations of *Grampus*.

¶ In McDonald's Report of Operations at Wytheville Station, Va.

|| In Sanderson Smith's List of Dredging Stations in the North Atlantic.

REPORT OF THE COMMISSIONER.

1.—INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

During the period of time covered by this report the work of the United States Fish Commission was under the direction of Prof. Spencer F. Baird. In consequence of his declining health and the pressure of administrative duties as Secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, as well as Commissioner of Fisheries, the preparation of a report proper to accompany the various reports and papers constituting the appendix was prevented.

The following digest of the operations of the year, which has been prepared from data compiled mainly by Mr. C. W. Smiley, editor, for the convenience of the Commissioner in the preparation of his annual report, aims to present briefly, from an impersonal standpoint, the principal features of interest in connection with the work accomplished.

The personality of the distinguished naturalist who founded the United States Fish Commission, and under whose wise and broad administration it has grown to be the custodian and conservator of one of our most important food resources is, however, fitly represented by his important posthumous paper on the sea fisheries of eastern North America, which appears in the appendix. This monograph, after some introductory account of the fisheries, follows with a list of the food and bait fishes and invertebrates, together with biographical notices of the most important species. The food and the reproduction of the sea fishes, their migrations and movements, numbers and abundance, and the dangers and fatalities to which they are subject from enemies in the sea, from man, and through physical causes or changes are discussed at length. The important fishing grounds are described in detail, as well as the apparatus of capture, from the primitive bow and arrow to the elaborate nets and pounds of the present time. The various kinds of bait, the methods of preserving fish and bait, and the disposition of offal are considered. The statistics of the value of the American fisheries are given, and followed by a review of the economical applications of the products of the fisheries as food for man and animals, and for use in the arts and industries in the form of oils, fertilizers, medicines, etc. The maintenance and improvement of the fisheries by legislation, artificial propagation, and the transfer of species from one region to another are subjects which receive the attention warranted by their importance.

2.—INQUIRY RESPECTING FOOD-FISHES AND THE FISHING GROUNDS.

A.—FIELD-WORK.

In this branch of inquiry field-work was carried on in a thorough manner along the Eastern coast of North America from the Straits of Florida to Newfoundland. From February 20 to May 10 the steamer *Albatross*, Lieut. Commander Z. L. Tanner, U. S. Navy, commanding, was engaged in a survey of the region about the Bahama Islands, in the joint interests of the Fish Commission and the Navy Department, the expenses of the cruise being shared by the two. The purpose of the voyage, on the part of the Fish Commission, was to ascertain, if possible, the winter range and habits of certain important food-fishes, which resort to the Eastern coast of North America during the warmer months, but whose first appearance in the spring and whose abundance during the fishing season vary from year to year. The principal species concerning which information of this character was desired were the mackerel, menhaden, and bluefish; but attention was also to be paid to other economic forms, such as the Spanish mackerel, sheepshead, and drum, if found to occur abundantly in those waters. On behalf of the Navy Department several lines of soundings were to be made to the northward and eastward of the islands and in the deeper channels which separate them, the hydrography of this important region being but little known. Mr. James E. Benedict was in charge of the civilian scientific staff, and was assisted by Mr. Thomas Lee, Mr. Charles H. Townsend, Mr. Willard Nye, jr., and Mr. F. L. Washburn, the two last mentioned being volunteers.

The work of sounding was begun to the north of Great Abaco Island, and was carried thence southeastward along the Atlantic side of the islands as far as San Salvador or Watling's Island, and offshore in some places to a distance of over 100 miles. The greatest depth of water discovered was 3,196 fathoms, in latitude $28^{\circ} 34' 42''$ north, longitude $76^{\circ} 10' 25''$ west, or about 110 miles northeast of Great Abaco. Several lines were run between the five islands lying at the mouth of Exuma Sound, namely, Cat Island, Long Island, Watling's Island, Concepcion Island, and Rum Cay, showing that the intervening channels are of great depth, the depth in one place exceeding 2,400 fathoms. From this point the soundings were carried through Exuma Sound to its upper end, and thence by way of the open sea on the eastern side of Eleuthera Island to the town of Nassau, New Providence Island. Subsequently the work was continued through the Northeast and Northwest Providence channels and the Tongue of Ocean. On the home-ward journey soundings were also made to the east and north of Great Abaco Island and Little Bahama Bank, and off the coast of the Southern Atlantic States as far as Cape Hatteras. During these explorations one trip was made to Key West and Havana for the purpose of

obtaining coal and other supplies, giving opportunity for a limited amount of work in the Straits of Florida. The customary physical observations were made at all of the sounding stations, in order to determine the currents, temperatures, and densities of the water and the character of the bottom. The dredge, beam trawl, and tangles were also occasionally employed to ascertain the abundance of bottom life, but generally with poor results, the white coral ooze which predominates in the deeper waters about the Bahama Islands being comparatively barren and the shallower spots generally too rough for the successful working of the dredging appliances. Surface collecting in the same region with the towing nets was equally unproductive, but by allowing the naturalists to land upon the islands and work along the shore very important results were obtained. The shore work was vigorously pushed at every place where the steamer made a harbor, and parties of two were occasionally left upon the islands while the steamer continued its sounding operations in the neighboring region. The fisheries which center at Nassau, including the important sponge fishery, were carefully studied, but no traces were found of the pelagic fishes, whose winter abode, it was thought, might be in this region. In the Straits of Florida and along the line of the Gulf Stream farther north the results of dredging were exceedingly rich.

From July 8 to October 28 the steamer *Albatross* was at work upon the offshore fishing grounds of Eastern North America, between New York and Newfoundland, with headquarters at Wood's Holl, Mass. Mr. Benedict having resigned his position, Mr. Thomas Lee acted as chief naturalist during these explorations, and was assisted by Mr. Sanderson Smith. From July 15 to 18 a short trip was made to the outer edge of the submerged continental plateau south of Martha's Vineyard, where the tilefish was formerly abundant. On August 2 the *Albatross* started east on a second cruise to the great cod and halibut banks lying off the coasts of the British Provinces, the purpose of which was to study the character and resources of the banks in general, and of those areas specially which are but little known; to search for new or reported banks, the existence or location of which was uncertain; and, partly in the interests of the Navy Department, to investigate certain reported dangers lying in the track of ocean steamers and fishing vessels. Diligent search was made for the mythical Hope Bank, supposed to be located south of Halifax, some distance off Le Have Bank; but although numerous soundings were made over a wide area inclosing its reported position, and thence to Sable Island Bank, no unusual inequalities in the bottom were discovered. A line of soundings was run between Banquereau and the Grand Bank to develop the contour of the intervening gulley in which halibut abound. Trials were made for codfish on the eastern part of Grand Bank, the eastern edge of which was found to be incorrectly represented on the published charts. Fruitless search was made for a reported bank of great promise

to the fishermen, which was supposed to be located about 200 miles east of the Grand Bank in about 45° north latitude. Soundings were made from this point to the Flemish Cap, which was partly explored, and thence to the northeastern edge of the Grand Bank. St. John's, Newfoundland, was then visited for supplies, giving the naturalists an opportunity to study some important salmon streams, the steamer starting homeward from this place on August 21. During the trip to the westward the explorations were continued off the southern end of Green and St. Pierre Banks, between the latter bank and Banquereau, across Banquereau and Sable Island Bank, past the reported position of Hope Bank, and thence along the edge of George's Bank to Vineyard Sound, the steamer arriving at Wood's Holl August 29. Subsequently two trips were made to the deep-water area lying between latitude $36^{\circ} 30'$ and 39° north, and longitude 70° and $74^{\circ} 33'$ west.

The steamer *Fish Hawk* was engaged but little in this branch of inquiry during 1886. In August a few of the light-ships at which temperature observations are taken for the Commission were visited, and the keepers instructed as to the proper methods of immersing and reading the thermometers, especially during extremes of temperature. In October a few casts of the beam trawl were made in the region off Sandy Hook, N. J., where specimens of the English sole had been planted several years before, but without finding any trace of them.

The schooner *Grampus*, Capt. J. W. Collins commanding, made many important investigations respecting the fishing grounds and food-fishes off the New England and adjacent coasts, but these were mostly undertaken in the interest of fish culture. In August, a cruise was made to the tilefish grounds south of Martha's Vineyard, and six days were spent in fishing with cod trawls and hand lines in depths of from 60 to 160 fathoms, over an area about 120 miles in length. Only a few fish, mostly hake, were captured. From September 22 to October 9 the *Grampus* was engaged in an attempt to carry living specimens of halibut from the fishing grounds to Wood's Holl, for the purpose of securing their spawn in suitable condition for hatching. Fishing for this species was mainly carried on off Le Have Bank, in depths of 200 to 300 fathoms. A number of halibut were taken and transferred to the schooner's well, apparently without receiving serious injury from the hooks or subsequent handling. None of them lived, however, more than thirty-six hours, and the conclusion was reached that the fish could not survive the great change of temperature and pressure incident to their transfer from deep water to the surface. As it was probable, however, that halibut taken in shallow water could be successfully transported, a search was made for them in other localities, but none were found. With other species less difficulty was encountered. On this and the previous cruise, Mr. Raymond L. Newcomb acted as naturalist, and Mr. James Carswell accompanied the *Grampus* as fish culturist, in the search for halibut. During most of the remainder of the

year the *Grampus* continued her fishing trips in Massachusetts Bay and off Cape Ann, carrying several cargoes of live fish, principally cod, in good condition, to the Wood's Holl station.

In December, Mr. Charles H. Townsend, an assistant of the Commission, was sent to the western part of the Caribbean Sea for the purpose of studying the fisheries of that region in the interests of the American fishermen. One of the objects of his trip was to ascertain if that region was to any extent the winter home of pelagic fishes which resort to the eastern coast of the United States in summer. His work extended into 1887. Free transportation as far as Swan Island was furnished by Mr. J. M. Glidden, president of the Pacific Guano Company.

The Wood's Holl station was occupied in the interests of scientific inquiry from early in July until the middle of October, becoming during this period the headquarters for the steamer *Albatross*. The Commissioner, Professor Baird, was in attendance during the entire season, and personally directed the work as in previous years. Prof. A. E. Verrill was in charge of the laboratory, assisted by Mr. Richard Rathbun. The regular force of workers in the biological laboratory was constituted as follows: Prof. S. I. Smith, of Yale College; Prof. John A. Ryder, of Washington; Mr. Sanderson Smith, of New York; Prof. Leslie A. Lee, of Bowdoin College; Prof. Edwin Linton, of Washington and Jefferson College; Prof. B. F. Koons, of the Storr's Agricultural School; Mr. J. H. Blake, of Cambridge, as artist; Mr. Peter Parker, jr., of Washington; Miss K. J. Bush, and Miss. C. E. Bush, assistants of Professor Verrill; and Mr. A. H. Baldwin and Miss M. J. Rathbun, assistants in the National Museum. The chemical and physical laboratory was in charge of Dr. J. H. Kidder, and the aquaria were managed by Mr. William P. Seal, of Philadelphia. Tables in the biological laboratory were also occupied by the following college representatives: Prof. S. F. Clarke, of Williams College; Prof. E. B. Wilson, of Bryn Mawr College, and Dr. A. T. Bruce, of Johns Hopkins University. Mr. Vinal N. Edwards, a permanent observer and collector for the Fish Commission in the Vineyard Sound region, worked in conjunction with the summer party, and assisted it in various ways.

Although acting as superintendent of the station during the summer, Professor Ryder was able to devote much time to the problems of lobster and oyster culture, which were then being carried on, especially with reference to the care and rearing of the young. During the spring hatching season for cod and lobsters he also made elaborate studies of the development of those two species from their earliest stages. The other naturalists were mostly engaged in preserving, assorting, and studying the large collections brought in by the steamer *Albatross* from its several cruises to the fishing grounds. Much field work was also done in the neighboring region, in continuance of the investigations of former years, for the purpose of obtaining informa-

tion respecting the times of occurrence, the abundance, life histories, habits, diseases, parasites, etc., of the useful fishes and marine invertebrates. The Roosen process of preserving fresh fish, which has attracted much attention in Europe, was given several trials, with the expectation of finding it adapted to the preservation of bait for the offshore fishing vessels, a problem of unusual importance at the present time. It proved to be entirely unsuited to this purpose, however, the fish placed in it becoming too soft either for bait or for food, though generally free from the offensive odors of decomposition. Many large aquaria were added to the equipment of the lower floor of the laboratory and fish-hatching building, and under Mr. Seal's arrangements gave excellent opportunities to observe the habits of even large-sized fishes, of which an abundant supply for that purpose was always kept on hand. During the hatching season it was intended that these aquaria should be used for the temporary storage of the fry.

B.—SPECIAL INVESTIGATIONS.

Temperatures and densities.—One of the most important scientific problems before the Fish Commission has been the determination of the temperature and density of the water along the sea-coasts and in all inland lakes and rivers which afford valuable fisheries, or might be suited to that purpose. The object in studying these physical characteristics is at least twofold: First, to ascertain the influence of temperature and density on the movements of those migratory fishes which form so large a proportion of the fishery production of the country, and the appearance and abundance of which during any fishing season may possibly, in a measure, be predicted by a thorough knowledge of the physical conditions essential to their well-being; second, to furnish a guide in the transplanting of fishes and the stocking of any region with the species most likely to survive and propagate. General results are not so important or so applicable to this study as special series of observations continued from year to year. In the furtherance of this object, observations of temperature, and where expedient determinations of density, were made at all of the stations of the Commission during the entire year, or while operations were in progress. The same observations were made with great care by the vessels of the Commission, whether in port or cruising, and generally at intervals of one hour. The bottom and serial temperatures, and other physical data obtained by the steamer *Albatross*, on the fishing banks and in deep water, are of special value in the same connection. The most important continuous series of surface temperatures, however, are those taken for the Commission by employés of the Light-House Board and Signal Service along both sea-boards of the United States, at several stations on the Great Lakes, and upon some of the most important shad and salmon rivers on both sides of the continent. This co-operation between the two bureaus just mentioned and the Fish Commission

has continued for many years, and has resulted in the accumulation of a large amount of valuable information. During 1886, these observations were carried on at thirty-six light-ships and light-houses, and at forty-eight stations of the Signal Service.

Rusty mackerel.—The rusting of mackerel, which sometimes occurs when, through the leaking out of the brine in which they are preserved in barrels, they are left more or less exposed to the air, has been a source of frequent loss to the fish dealers. The character and precise cause of this peculiar change being unknown, specimens of rusty mackerel were obtained during the year and submitted to Prof. W. O. Atwater, of Middletown, Conn., for examination. His report upon the subject has not yet been received.

Disease among trout.—The investigations by Prof. S. A. Forbes, of Illinois, of specimens of trout from Baird Station, Cal., affected by a disease hitherto unknown in that region, proves that the disease is identical with that found among the herring in Madison Lakes, Wisconsin, where it was very wide spread and destructive in 1884. Mr. Forbes's report will be found in the account of McCloud River station, by Livingston Stone.

C.—PREPARATION OF REPORTS, ETC.

The study of materials and the reduction and compilation of observations made by the field parties, including the preparation of reports upon the same, was continued during the year at the Washington and Wood's Holl stations of the Commission and at many college laboratories. As heretofore this class of work was done mostly by volunteers, among whom are some of the most accomplished naturalists of the country. Prof. A. E. Verrill has had general charge of the collections of marine invertebrates obtained along the Eastern coast, north of Cape Hatteras, which he is studying in their relations to the fishing grounds. The fishes were being treated in a similar manner by Prof. G. Brown Goode and Dr. T. H. Bean. Other special subjects were intrusted to the following persons: The crustacea to Prof. S. I. Smith; the bottom deposits to Prof. L. A. Lee; the internal parasites of fishes to Prof. Edwin Linton and Prof. B. F. Koons; the crustacean parasites of fishes and the temperature results to Mr. R. Rathbun; special groups of the mollusca and the preparation of charts to illustrate the marine investigations of the Commission to Mr. Sanderson Smith; embryological work respecting the cod, lobster, and oyster and other economic species to Prof. John A. Ryder; the preservation of bait to Dr. J. H. Kidder and Mr. Rathbun.

D.—PROPOSED EXTENSION OF THE INQUIRY TO THE PACIFIC COAST.

The first extensive fishery investigations made upon the Pacific coast of the United States were undertaken by the U. S. Fish Commission in connection with the Tenth Census, beginning in 1879 and extending

through two or three years. Although these were mainly limited to a study of the history of the fisheries and of their condition at that time, large collections of fishes, containing many new and interesting species, were also obtained and described. An important result of these researches was to furnish conclusive proof of the value and extent of the fishery resources of the Western coast, which were then developed and utilized only to a very limited extent in the vicinity of the large settlements, and especially about San Francisco. A few fishing vessels, however, were in the habit of visiting, each season, certain rich cod and halibut banks off the central and southern Alaskan coasts, but the extent and character of these banks was unknown. The advantages which the Eastern fisheries have derived from the investigations of the steamer *Albatross* seemed to warrant the extension of the survey to the Pacific coast, and upon the solicitation of many persons interested in the matter the Commissioner decided to detail the *Albatross* for that purpose as soon as Congress could make provision for her voyage around and for the necessary alterations in her machinery. Appropriations for this purpose were passed in August, 1886, and before the close of the calendar year new boilers for the steamer were under construction. The plans for the Pacific work contemplated a thorough survey of the entire coast from southern California to the upper limit of the extensive cod and halibut banks in Alaska, upon the basis of the East coast explorations; but considering how little has been done to make known the contour and character of the bottom in that region, except near the shore, it was expected that hydrographic work in laying out and defining the fishing banks would demand a larger share of attention than hitherto. The study of the fishery resources will, however, be kept up at the same time, with the view of completing results as the explorations continue.

3.—INQUIRY RESPECTING THE FISHERIES.

Considerable progress was made during the year in the study of several of the more important fisheries, with respect both to their methods and their statistics. An event of more than usual interest was the completion of the fishing schooner *Grampus*, which has been constructed upon an entirely new plan proposed by Capt. J. W. Collins. While intended to serve as the model of a type of off-shore fishing smack, which it is thought will insure greater speed and safety to this class of vessels, she has also been specially adapted to certain branches of marine work for the prosecution of which no adequate means have hitherto been provided.

A.—OFFICE AND FIELD WORK.

The office and field work in charge of Mr. R. E. Earll had reference mainly to the following subjects:

(1) *The mackerel fishery.*—The extent of the southern spring fishery and the condition of the fish, both fresh and salt, when placed upon the

market. The effect of the spring fishery upon the demand for and the average price of salted mackerel caught later in the season. As to whether the continuance of the spring fishery is tending seriously to affect the abundance of mackerel, or, as is often claimed, has any influence in breaking up or scattering the schools of fish.

(2) *The menhaden fishery.*—The present extent and location of this fishery. As to whether the methods of the fishery are in any way connected with the continued absence or scarcity of menhaden on the New England coast.

(3) *The sardine industry.*—The statistics of the industry, and the changes which have taken place in the methods of capture and of preparation of the fish since the investigations of 1880. The influence of the abrogation of the Treaty of Washington and of the proposed duties upon the supply of fish and upon the cost of producing the canned goods.

(4) The fisheries of the Great Lakes, respecting which a report, based upon the investigations of 1885, has nearly been completed.

(5) A general and statistical review of the vessel fisheries of the United States, material for which is being collected by means of circulairs filled out at the custom-houses located at fishing ports.

(6) The compilation of national and State laws relating to the fisheries.

Mr. W. A. Wilcox was employed at Gloucester, Mass., during the entire year, as an agent of the Commission in collecting data relative to the statistics and methods of the New England fisheries. He was assisted by Capt. S. J. Martin, and rendered monthly reports which have been published in the Fish Commission Bulletin for 1886. During September and October the Senate Committee on Fisheries visited Gloucester for the purpose of giving personal consideration to the different phases of the industry, and also took testimony of the fishermen. The facilities of the station were placed at its disposal.

The sturgeon fisheries of Delaware Bay and River were made the subject of an investigation by Mr. S. G. Worth, who reported over two hundred and fifty boats, carrying from 200 to 500 fathoms of net each, engaged in the industry. Mr. Worth's inquiries also had reference to the expediency of propagating sturgeon by artificial methods. The statistics of the salmon canning establishments of the Pacific coast, from 1883 to 1886, were collected by Mr. Loren W. Green, an assistant at the California stations of the Fish Commission. Mr. Green, in the course of this work, visited all of the canneries of fish on the Sacramento River. His report on the subject is contained in the Fish Commission Bulletin for 1886.

B.—THE MACKEREL FISHERY DURING 1886.

The following summary of the mackerel fishery for 1886 was prepared by Mr. W. A. Wilcox:

The work of the season began early, the first vessels sailing from Gloucester on March 11. A large fleet was soon cruising off the Delaware coast. On March 28, the

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first mackerel were seen and caught in latitude $37^{\circ} 30'$, longitude $75^{\circ} 35'$. An immense body of fish, in large schools, was seen extending some 25 miles. The fish remained in this location up to April 20. A small catch was made, 25 miles north of where they were first seen, up to May 15. For a week during the middle of May quite a large body of fish was seen, and some good fares were secured in latitude $38^{\circ} 30'$, longitude 74° , off Fenwick's Inlet. The weather was unfavorable for fishing much of the time, the early catch small, and the fishing followed at a loss. May 15, part of the fleet were off Block Island taking some mackerel, but no large body of fish was again seen off the United States coast until fall. The early catch was noticeable as being all large fish, and, as usual in the spring, of poor quality. The body of fish appear to have crossed the southern part of George's Bank, and were next found off the Nova Scotia coast, between Cape Sable and Canso, mackerel having been caught there between May 25 and June 5, passing on into the Gulf of St. Lawrence, being found June 15 off North Cape, Prince Edward's Island. On July 8 they were found 15 miles N. by E. from North Cape, soon disappearing. From July 8 to August 1 was the only time mackerel were found in abundance in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, and not always during that time, yet vessels that were on the grounds of Orphan and Bradley Banks, and off Escumenac Point, had a fair catch. The fish were mostly taken from 10 to 25 miles from shore.

The early catch came to a close abruptly. Only the first arrivals secured fares, later arrivals spent weeks and months, taking very few if any fish. Vessels with a fair catch came home, selling their catch at the extremely low price of \$4.50 a barrel, and at once returned in hopes of securing another fare of better fish and realizing more for them; in most cases they were disappointed, catching only a few barrels of fish.

Returning from the disastrous trips to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, the fleet cruised off the home shore, from the Bay of Fundy to Cape Cod, adding a small amount to the catch which was continued up to the middle of December. Quite a body of fine mackerel were off Block Island, and in Barnstable Bay as late as December; they seldom schooled, yet quite an amount was taken by small boats and net fishermen. The work of the season is remarkable for the scarcity of fish, they having been seen only occasionally in any amount either in American or provincial waters. The amount taken is the smallest since 1843, and with three exceptions, since 1818. The catch often shows great fluctuations, years of small production being followed by abundance. As late as 1883, the catch of Massachusetts was only 154,140 barrels, followed the next year by 304,938. The rapid and great advance in prices is noticeable, yet under the circumstances not remarkable.

The American catch of mackerel for 1886.

State.	Apparatus.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
Massachusetts.....	Vessels.....	220	16,350.69	3,313
Do.....	Weirs and traps.....			243
Maine.....	Vessels.....	99	5,944.36	1,377
Do.....	Weirs and traps.....			
New Hampshire.....	Vessels.....	4	186.91	60
Rhode Island.....	Weirs and traps.....			
Connecticut.....	Vessels.....	2	88.13	19
New York.....	do.....	1	77.00	17
Pennsylvania.....	do.....	1	79.15	17
Total		327	22,726.24	5,046

The American catch of mackerel for 1886—Continued.

State.	Apparatus.	Southern.		New England shore.		Nova Scotia shore and Gulf of St. Lawrence.		1886. Total barrels.	
		Cured.	Fresh.	Cured.	Fresh.	Cured.	Fresh.	Cured.	Fresh.
Massachusetts	Vessels	2,642	9,928	8,126	10,032	54,633	-----	65,401	19,960
Do	Weirs and traps	-----	-----	1,299	5,991	-----	-----	1,299	5,991
Maine	Vessels	95	2,550	6,604	2,528	10,727	780	17,426	5,898
Do	Weirs and traps	-----	-----	80	950	-----	-----	80	.950
New Hampshire	Vessels	-----	-----	125	1,500	-----	-----	125	1,500
Rhode Island	Weirs and traps	-----	-----	650	1,100	-----	-----	650	1,100
Connecticut	Vessels	-----	-----	275	-----	-----	-----	275	-----
New York	do	-----	-----	50	-----	100	-----	150	-----
Pennsylvania	do	-----	68	200	-----	148	-----	348	68
Total	-----	2,737	12,586	17,409	22,101	65,608	780	85,754	33,467

C.—THE SCHOONER GRAMPUS.

In previous reports allusion has been made to the building of a sailing vessel for the work of the Commission, which was to be named the *Grampus*. The vessel was completed and went into commission on June 5th of the present year. Her operations are fully discussed in a report published in the appendix.

The purposes for which this vessel was constructed are varied and important. For some time the Commission has felt the necessity of having a suitable sailing vessel, provided with a well, in which marine fishes can be kept alive and transported from the fishing grounds to the hatching stations on the coast where the eggs may be obtained for the purpose of artificial propagation.

Such a vessel can also serve a useful purpose by bringing in alive marine species, not perhaps in a gravid condition, which can be put into large aquaria and thus afford to biologists an opportunity to study the habits of our ocean fauna under conditions that can not possibly be otherwise afforded.

Another important duty which it is believed may be performed by a welled vessel, that is seaworthy and swift, is to visit European waters and bring therefrom alive certain species of marine fishes which are held in high repute for food and do not occur in American waters. Among these may be mentioned the sole, turbot, plaice, and brill. The introduction and propagation of these species in our waters must be of great advantage to the United States, not only in giving to our people additional species of delicate food fishes, but in introducing for their capture the method of fishing with a beam trawl, which is not now in vogue here and might, perhaps, profitably employ many vessels and men.

The *Grampus* has been fitted for using a beam trawl to test its utility in American waters in a commercial way. Although we have not the species of flat fishes which constitute the principal objects of the beam trawl fishery in Europe, there are several kinds in our waters

that are nearly as good, and it is possible that on the sandy and muddy bottoms frequented by these off our coast the beam trawl may be very effectively used.

It is also of the highest importance that the movements of the migratory fishes should be followed in the spring and autumn, when they are approaching and leaving the feeding grounds which they frequent in summer.

Hitherto less has been done in this direction than is desirable, and a sailing vessel which is able to remain at sea in all weathers is especially well adapted to carrying on such investigation, since she is not dependent upon a supply of coal, and may, if necessary, cruise for weeks or months in succession. The *Grampus* being especially fitted for carrying on fishing operations can use all the appliances and methods for the capture of fish much better than they can be used on larger and more expensive steam vessels. In connection with these researches to ascertain the movements and habits of the migratory species, various forms of apparatus will be used to ascertain their presence, as well as the occurrence of crustacea or other forms of minute life that may constitute the food of fishes. Observations of the temperature, density of water, and the influence of winds and currents upon the movements of fish can also be studied.

She is especially adapted to making researches at sea for the discovery and investigation of fishing grounds, as well as for collecting the fauna of the localities visited, and thus determining the value of certain regions for the purposes of commercial fishing.

The *Grampus* is a two-masted, schooner-rigged vessel, 90 feet long, over all; 81 feet 6 inches on load-water line; 22 feet 2 inches beam, and 10 feet depth of hold; her registered tonnage is 83.30 tons. In model and rig she is a radical departure from the vessels commonly in use in the New England fisheries; and an additional important object sought in building her was to produce a type of fishing vessel which will be safer and better adapted in various ways to the exigencies required of a schooner employed in the ocean fisheries.

In the cruises made the present year she has shown remarkable sea-going qualities, and has demonstrated the fact that in safety, speed, and "handiness" she is far superior to the clipper fishing schooners of New England. Her influence is already being felt, and the principal features in her model and rig, which have been alluded to in a previous report, are being copied by the New England builders.

It is reasonable, therefore, to suppose that marked innovations may be caused by her advent, and that a few years will witness a change for the better in the form and rig of our fishing vessels. Such a change will result in the obtainment of greater safety and other scarcely less desirable qualities that must prove very beneficial to the fishing interests, and especially in preventing the sacrifice of life and property which has heretofore seriously handicapped these industries.

4.—FISHERY RELATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES WITH CANADA.

The treaty of Washington, defining the fishery relations between Canada and the United States, terminated July 1, 1886, but, by courtesy of the British Government, the privileges which it had granted to American fishermen were extended to the 1st of January following. In connection with the correspondence which ensued between the representatives of the two Governments relative to this subject, the U. S. Fish Commissioner was occasionally called upon for information. In December, 1886, he made the following report to the honorable Secretary of the Treasury, in reply to several questions which the latter had presented for his consideration. This report is of special interest as giving in concise form a comprehensive view of the fishery question based upon the evidence in the possession of the Fish Commission. The questions and replies are as follows:

Question 1. "What do you estimate to have been the value of the products of the British North American fisheries for 1885?"

The Canadian fisheries in 1885, as shown by tables compiled by the Canadian government, furnished occasional or continuous employment to 59,493 persons, with 1,177 vessels and 28,472 boats. The value of these, together with that of the other apparatus and capital, including shore property, gives a total of \$6,697,459 employed in the fisheries industries, with a total value of products amounting to \$17,722,973.18. The tables from which the summary is obtained have been compiled from the annual report of the Department of Fisheries, Dominion of Canada, for the year 1885.

In using the figures, it should be remembered that the tables include not only the commercial fisheries, but also the persons, apparatus, and capital employed in fishing for local supply, and probably a large number who fish only to furnish food for their own families. This class, owing to the lack of manufacturing interests and the character of the soil, composes in many localities a large part of the population.

Question 2. "What are the descriptions of the fish—in consequence of the present habits of the fish, the present methods of catching, drying, curing, and preserving—American fishermen desire to take either in the jurisdictional waters of British North America, or in the open sea or open bays near the British colonial possessions?"

Prior to, and during the first half of the present century, many of the New England vessels engaged in the offshore cod fisheries, being of small size, found it desirable to fish in the vicinity of the shore, where they could make a harbor in case of severe storms. Owing to their small tonnage, they found it difficult to carry sufficient quantities of codfish to make a trip to the more distant fishing grounds profitable, and many of them found it desirable to land and dry their fish upon the shores, thus enabling them to bring home a much larger quantity as a result of the voyage. At that time the majority of the fish were exported to Spain and the West Indies, and the methods which our fishermen found it necessary to adopt in drying their fish on the provincial shores made them especially adapted for these markets.

Since 1850 the small vessels engaged in the offshore fisheries have been gradually replaced by larger ones, and thus the privilege of fishing for cod in the vicinity of the shore has become less important, and as the codfish are more abundant on the offshore banks, 20 to 200 miles from land, vessels engaged in this fishery now prefer to visit these localities; and they have been doing so, with comparatively few exceptions, for the past fifteen or twenty years. The catch of these vessels, instead of being exported, is now to a great extent consumed in this country, and our market at present calls for fish cured in a different way, so that the privilege of drying and curing fish

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on Canadian soil, now that the vessels are large enough to readily carry the undried fish, is no longer of any advantage whatever to our fishermen.

Formerly vessels employed in the mackerel fisheries were provided only with hand-lines, and the crews caught the fish from the vessel's deck. When fishing in this way they found it desirable to grind up fish and clams, which they threw in large quantities into the water to attract the mackerel and keep them in the vicinity of the vessel. The best results were then obtained by fishing in shoal water, as the bait thrown overboard could not sink to any great depth, and the entire body of fish were thus kept near the surface, where they were within reach of the hook and line. About 1,865 purse-seines were introduced for the capture of mackerel, and in a few years they came to be generally adopted by vessels employed in the mackerel fishery. These are fished to best advantage at some distance from the shore, and the fishermen usually avoid shoal water, as the seines are liable to be ruined when set in depths where the lead lines may chance to come in contact with the bottom.

During earlier years the halibut fishery in the vicinity of Provincial shores was of some slight importance to the American fishermen, but this has been confined wholly to deep water, many miles from land, since 1875.

The shore herring fisheries, and the occasional capture of certain species for bait, were also at one time of value to fishermen from the United States; but such a decided opposition on the part of the resident Provincial fishermen was manifested to the exercise of the privilege of taking fish, accorded by the Treaty of Washington, that the practice of catching their own supply was practically abandoned, and the fishermen have almost without exception, since the well-known difficulty at Fortune Bay, Newfoundland, about ten years ago, purchased their cargoes of herring from the local fishermen, and, where these had no suitable apparatus for obtaining the same, have carried their own apparatus and hired the provincial fishermen to manipulate it.

The mackerel is, then, the only species of any importance visiting Provincial waters which American fishermen at present desire to catch within 3 miles of the shore, or indeed within a much greater distance. This is practically the only Provincial shore fishery in which our fishermen have had any considerable interest since the ratification of the Treaty of Washington, as the great majority of our vessels employed in other fisheries on the banks off the Provincial coast seldom fish nearer than 25 or 30 miles from land, and a majority of them secure their cargoes from 100 to 200 miles from shore.

At the present time the advantage to be derived from any privilege of fishing within 3 miles of the Canadian coasts, even for mackerel, is comparatively insignificant, as the results of the season which has just closed show conclusively that our vessels which have fished wholly outside of the 3-mile limit have done fully as well as the Canadian vessels which have had the opportunity of fishing everywhere, without restriction as to distance from shore.

Question 3. In the method of fishing on that open sea, or in those open bays, of preserving the catch and sending it to our ports for a market now desirable for our American fishermen, of what importance is the right to enter, in a commercial way, British colonial ports in the neighborhood?

The nature of the occupation of fishing, when the size of the vessel is considered, renders it impossible for a fishing vessel to provide against all contingencies. On leaving the home ports the vessels are ordinarily provided with what is supposed to be a full outfit of provisions and apparatus, but a scarcity of fish may render it desirable that it should remain on the fishing grounds longer than was expected, or it may be delayed by head-winds, storms, or floating ice, until the supply of provisions or water is exhausted. It then becomes convenient, in order to prevent actual suffering, that the vessel should make a harbor and obtain additional quantities. Instances have occurred during the present year when vessels short of provisions have attempted to reach one of our own ports to obtain a supply rather than incur the risk of seizure by entering those of Canada for that purpose.

Again, portions of the vessel's equipment, such as anchors, cables, fishing-boats, and apparatus of capture, are liable to be lost during stormy weather, and it is a great convenience to be able to purchase new material in the nearest Provincial port rather than to incur the loss which must be sustained, provided the vessel is obliged to return to American markets to purchase them. This is true both in the fisheries carried on near the land and also in those on the more distant fishing grounds. This season much inconvenience was experienced by many of the vessels engaged in the mackerel fishery from the tearing of their seines and the loss of their seine-boats in heavy weather, owing to the refusal of certain Canadian officials to allow them to land their seines for purposes of repair or to buy new boats for continuing their fishing operations. Many of them were provided with two boats, and some carried two seines to guard against such contingencies, but in a number of cases vessels so equipped were equally inconvenienced with the others.

The only occasion that vessels would have for entering the harbor, due to the methods of preserving fish, would be for the purpose of obtaining either salt, barrels, or ice. It sometimes happens that the salt is damaged by a leak in the vessel, or that a detention beyond the expected time causes the melting of the ice, and it is important that our fishermen should be permitted to purchase additional quantities in Canadian ports, rather than run the risk of losing the entire cargo of fish or of returning with only a partial trip. The present interpretation given to the treaty of 1818 by the Canadian authorities, while it might allow a leaking vessel to enter a port for repairs, would not allow it to replace the salt that might have been rendered worthless by the leak.

The privilege of landing cargoes of fish at Provincial ports for shipment to the United States is of considerable importance to vessels engaged in the mackerel fishery, but of little value to those employed in the capture of other species. Vessels are thus enabled to land trips for shipment and to immediately resume their fishing operations, thus saving the two to four weeks necessary for making the homeward and return passage; but with the privilege of transshipping cargoes should be coupled that of refitting at the port where the fish are landed, otherwise the vessel might be short of provisions or apparatus, which would render it impossible for it to continue its fishing operations.

Most of the vessels from Gloucester, Mass., engaged in the off-shore cod fisheries have made a practice of obtaining fresh bait in Provincial ports; but a majority of vessels similarly employed from other places carry salt bait, thus being entirely independent of the Canadian supply. The chief difference between the two classes is that the Gloucester vessels fish with trawls, while the crews of most of the other vessels catch their fish with hand-lines. It is claimed by certain of the Gloucester fleet that they get more and larger fish by the use of fresh bait, but the fishermen from other ports have found their own methods profitable and have not felt disposed to follow Gloucester's example even when they had free access to Canadian ports for the purpose of obtaining bait.

A few of the vessel-owners in Gloucester have long maintained that the time lost in going to and from Provincial ports to secure bait, and the temporary demoralization of the crews resulting from a visit to these ports more than offset any advantages that are to be derived by the use of fresh bait, and urge that salt bait would be found, on the whole, more profitable; but as a considerable percentage of the men employed on the vessels have families or relatives in the Provinces, they have continued to urge upon the owners the necessity of obtaining bait in these localities, and it has been difficult to dissuade them. After the experience of the present year quite a number of other Gloucester owners and fishermen as well are convinced that it is on the whole better to substitute salt bait than to continue the old practice of leaving the Banks in the midst of the fishing season to obtain other kinds in the Provinces. That this opinion is shared by the Nova Scotia fishermen is proven by the fact that for some years they have been in the habit of purchasing large quantities of salt

clams from dealers at Portland and other towns in the State of Maine, to be used by them in the cod fisheries.

Since the introduction of the purse-seine the mackerel fishermen have required no bait.

In the halibut fishery it is only necessary to take a sufficient quantity to last one or two days, as the remainder of the catch can be obtained on refuse fish taken on the trawls with the halibut, or, if necessary, small halibut can be cut up and used for baiting the hooks.

In the past the cod-fishermen frequenting George's Banks have at certain seasons of the year obtained their bait from Canadian ports, but the experience of the present year has proven that they are not dependent upon them, as most of the vessels have obtained their supply on our own coast with comparatively little difficulty, and frequently with less loss of time than was customary when visiting localities in New Brunswick and Nova Scotia.

It will thus be seen that though the privilege of obtaining bait and the ice necessary for preserving it in British North American ports has been in the past and may even still be considered a convenience to certain classes of vessels, it is not of vital importance.

The agitation of the question of bait supply has had a very beneficial influence upon our own fishermen, and has resulted in the development of extensive shore-bait fisheries along the coasts of Maine and Massachusetts, which give promise of being able to supply in large part, if not wholly, the demands of our entire fleet. During the past summer the experiment of shipping bait to Boston from the more remote localities on the coast of Maine has been made with success, and the cost of transportation is not high enough to be a barrier to the continuance of the business. If this practice increases, as at present seems probable, it will doubtless result in a great saving of time to our fleet, which has often in the past been seriously inconvenienced in its fishing operations, owing to the time consumed in sailing from port to port in search of a supply. The U. S. Fish Commission has recently begun a series of experiments with a view to determining the practicability of preserving fresh bait long enough to admit of its shipment from New England ports to the fleet fishing on the more distant banks, but the work is not yet sufficiently advanced to warrant an opinion as to the probable result.

Question 4. "The same question in regard to the fishing on the permitted coasts and the commercial entry in the prohibited bays and harbors, but not for fishing."

There is at present comparatively little fishing by American vessels on that portion of the coast to which free access is given by the treaty of 1818; but vessels fishing in that vicinity should have the same privileges in other ports as are accorded to other vessels, as it would seem unwise to discriminate, and it would, perhaps, owing to the few settlements of any importance on the permitted coast, be more convenient for the vessel to enter ports in the prohibited districts to purchase the necessary articles than to go out of their way in an opposite direction, where there might be any uncertainty of securing them.

Question 5. "What is your estimate of the total tonnage of the American vessels, the number of fishermen thereon, engaged in the Canadian and North Atlantic fisheries in 1886, and the total value of their catch?"

A careful estimate of the extent and importance of our New England vessel fisheries indicates that during the present year there have been 1,956 vessels, aggregating 115,130 tons, with crews numbering 17,996 men, employed in the various sea fisheries. The fleet is estimated to have been divided as follows: 1,530 vessels in the food-fish fisheries, 215 in the shell-fish and lobster fisheries, 177 in the capture of whales and seals, and 34 in the menhaden fishery.

The 1,530 food-fish vessels aggregated 71,200 tons and furnished employment to 14,240 men. The vessels, with their equipment, were valued at nearly \$5,000,000, and their catch is estimated to have sold at prices to fishermen for \$4,590,000. Of this

fleet 350 sail were engaged in the off-shore mackerel fisheries, 200 in the cod fisheries on Quereau, Grand, and Western Banks, 165 others in the cod fisheries of George's and Brown's Banks, 65 in the off-shore halibut fisheries, and the remaining 750 in the miscellaneous shore and off-shore fisheries.

The off-shore mackerel vessels are the only ones that have engaged to any extent in catching fish in the vicinity of waters under British jurisdiction. Of this fleet about one-half, or possibly a slightly larger percentage, have fished in the Gulf of St. Lawrence during a portion of the mackerel season, the remainder of these vessels having remained off our own coast.

Below are given two tables, showing in detail the extent and character of our New England vessel fisheries in 1886. The figures as there explained are estimated from partial statistics furnished by collectors of customs on Treasury circular No. 63, Bureau of Navigation, and from special, but as yet unfinished, investigations by the U. S. Fish Commission. The statements in both tables are therefore subject to revision; but, as due allowance has been made for the statistics not yet received, it is believed the totals will not be materially changed by the final compilations.

Table estimating by fisheries the total number, tonnage, and value of New England vessels employed in the North Atlantic food-fish fisheries in 1886, with the number of men and value of apparatus and outfit on same, and the total value of their catch.

[These estimates are based upon partial returns from collectors of customs on Treasury Circular No. 63, current series, and upon special investigations by the U. S. Fish Commission.]

Fisherries.	Number.	Tonnage.	Value.	Value of apparatus and outfit.	Number of men.	Value of catch.
Off-shore mackerel fisheries.....	350	30,000	\$1,325,000	\$520,000	5,500	\$875,000
Cod-fisheries on Quereau, Grand, and Western Banks	200	16,500	765,000	330,000	2,800	990,000
Cod-fisheries on George's and Brown's Banks	165	10,000	640,000	200,000	2,000	850,000
Off-shore halibut fisheries.....	65	5,000	400,000	110,000	900	750,000
Miscellaneous shore and off-shore fisheries	750	9,700	430,000	260,000	3,040	1,125,000
Total	1,530	71,200	3,560,000	1,420,000	14,240	4,590,000

Table estimating by fisheries the total number, tonnage, and value of New England vessels, with the number of men thereon, employed in the various fisheries in 1886.

[Based upon partial returns from collectors of customs on Treasury Circular No. 63, current series, and information obtained from other sources.]

State.	No.	Tons.	Value.	No. of men.	State.	No.	Tons.	Value.	No. of men.
<i>Food-fish.</i>									
Maine	525	18,000	\$900,000	3,600	Lobster and shell-fish.				
New Hampshire	20	600	30,000	120	Maine	40	750	\$30,000	100
Massachusetts	850	50,000	2,500,000	10,000	New Hampshire	15	850	8,000	40
Rhode Island	35	400	20,000	80	Massachusetts	10	100	7,000	25
Connecticut	100	2,200	110,000	440	Rhode Island	150	2,600	230,000	400
Total	1,530	71,200	3,560,000	14,240	Total	215	4,300	245,000	565
<i>Whale and seal.</i>									
Maine	2	100	\$10,000	20	Menhaden.				
New Hampshire	Maine				
Massachusetts	163	36,000	1,500,000	2,500	New Hampshire				
Rhode Island	15	2,000	100,000	240	Massachusetts				
Total	177	38,100	1,610,000	2,760	Rhode Island	19	960	\$161,000	291
					Connecticut	15	570	66,550	140
					Total	34	1,530	227,550	431

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Table estimating by fisheries the total number, tonnage, and value of New England vessels, with the number of men theron, etc.—Continued.

SUMMARY.

State.	No.	Tons.	Value.	No. of men.
Maine	567	18,850	\$940,000	3,720
New Hampshire	20	600	30,000	120
Massachusetts	1,025	86,850	4,008,000	12,540
Rhode Island	64	1,460	188,000	396
Connecticut	280	7,370	476,550	1,220
Total	1,956	115,130	5,642,550	17,996

Question 6. "What change has, in your view, come to American fisheries since the last full year of the Washington treaty in regard to the character, quantity, and general features of that industry?"

There has been little change in the fisheries other than the mackerel fishery during the past year. In this fishery the scarcity of mackerel has been very marked and the catch has been much below that of the average year. The decrease, however, can be in no way attributed to the abrogation of the Treaty of Washington, but must rather be accounted for by natural causes which have affected the abundance, movements, and locality of the species.

For several years prior to 1886 mackerel appeared in more than average quantities, and for eight or ten years, ending with 1885, they have been much more plentiful on our own coast than on any portion of that of British North America. For this reason the fleet of American mackerel vessels visiting waters in the vicinity of British territory has of late been very small. In 1885, out of a total of about 380,000 barrels caught by our fleet, only 26,000 barrels, or less than 7 per cent., were taken in the vicinity of Canada, the quantity obtained within the 3-mile limit being only 3,564 barrels. The fact that, during a season when permission had been given to allow American vessels to fish anywhere in the waters of British North America without restriction as to distance from shore, less than 1 per cent. of the catch of our mackerel fleet was secured within 3 miles of British territory, and that more than 93 per cent. of the total catch of mackerel was obtained in the vicinity of our own coast, is certainly significant.

During the present year mackerel have been peculiarly scarce in all localities, though for the first time in eight or ten years they have been more abundant in the Gulf of St. Lawrence than off the New England coast, and a large percentage of the American vessels employed in the fishery have visited that locality. The catch has, as a rule, been unusually small, but the price has increased in proportion, so that the season for some of the vessels has not been wholly unprofitable. The limited catch can not in any way be accounted for by the restrictions placed upon our vessels within the 3-mile limit, for their catch, as previously stated, has been equal to that of the Canadian vessels that fished without restriction as to distance from the shore.

The vessels engaged in the cod-fishery have met with more than average success. This is partially attributed to the fact that the squid, used for bait, have been very plenty during the summer and fall months on the fishing-grounds. It has not infrequently occurred that vessels have sailed without any bait, depending upon the supply that they could catch on the Banks upwards of a hundred miles from shore.

Question 7. "Your Commission has, in its annual reports, alluded to the diminished necessity on the part of American fishermen to go to British North American ports or waters for *bait*. What are the new features of that necessity?"

A few years ago the United States Fish Commission obtained from Norway a number of gill-nets suitable for catching codfish, and used them with success in the cod-fisheries about Gloucester, Mass. Similar nets are now made in this country, and are extensively employed by the shore cod-fishermen of that vicinity, who obtain large

catches by their use. These fishermen formerly depended in large part for their bait upon frozen herring, brought from New Brunswick and Newfoundland, but where gill-nets are used bait is no longer required. Thus far, however, gill-nets have not been extensively employed in the capture of codfish on the more distant fishing-banks.

The development of our shore bait fisheries, referred to in answer to a previous question, also renders our people less dependent upon the Provincial supply, and the growing sentiment upon the part of certain Gloucester owners in favor of substituting salt clams purchased in American markets for fresh bait obtained in the Provinces, seems destined to decrease still further our dependence upon the Canadian supply. It can not be denied, however, that there are still a large number of vessels that would consider it a convenience to obtain bait in the Provinces, provided commercial privileges, under proper restrictions, are accorded to our vessels.

Question 8. "Your Commission has also alluded to inquiries presented by it in respect to the general value of the inshore Canadian waters to American fishermen, and the yearly value of the liberties given to American fishermen by the Washington treaty. Have you ascertained new facts of public interest in that regard which you can conveniently communicate to me?"

The decreased importance to American vessels of the inshore Canadian fisheries has resulted—

(1) From the increased size of our vessels, which did away with the necessity of fishing close to land, where harbor could be made in case of storms, and of landing in the vicinity of the fishing grounds to dry their fish before sailing for home;

(2) From the substitution of the purse-seine for the hand-lines in the capture of mackerel, which has necessitated the fishing in deeper water and at a greater distance from shore; and

(3) From the change in the location of the mackerel fisheries, which has for the past few years enabled our vessels to obtain full cargoes in the vicinity of our own coast, instead of going to the Gulf of St. Lawrence, where they formerly met with better success, but where of late years—prior to the present season—they have found fishing unsatisfactory.

This recent return of the mackerel to the more northern waters should, however, not be considered as indicating a permanent change in the location of the fishery, for within a short time, and possibly next season, they may again appear in greater abundance on our own coast; and, indeed, the study of the movements of other fishes renders it not wholly improbable that mackerel may at no distant day disappear entirely from the Gulf of St. Lawrence and from other portions of the Provincial shores, where they are now abundant.

5.—PROPAGATION OF FOOD-FISHES.

DISTRIBUTION OF FISH AND EGGS.

The cars of the Commission have been extensively used in transportation. Some changes have been made in methods of distribution. Carp and other fishes of the same family are shipped during the fall and early winter, and not in the spring, which is the season of their greatest emaciation. Eggs intended for shipment to foreign countries were packed at the stations for the entire trip, and not repacked in New York. The boxes containing them were transferred from the non-conducting material surrounding them in the outer shipping cases to the refrigerating-rooms of ocean steamers.

Trout have been shipped by express, without a messenger, from Washington to New York and back, with no loss. A shipment to

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Natural Bridge, Va., under less favorable conditions, was not so satisfactory; but these experiments indicate that it is possible to send trout moderate distances without attendants.

Below is a summary of the distribution for eighteen months, including 1886 and one-half of 1887; it covers, also, the distribution of 1885-'86 from the McCloud River and Cold Spring Harbor Stations not previously reported. The total number is somewhat too large, since the eggs of the Salmonidae, after being counted as distributed from the station where they were obtained, were hatched at other stations, and the fry produced were sometimes again reported. The distribution of whitefish (94,670,000) is the largest that has been made up to this time.

Summary of distribution from January 1, 1886, to June 30, 1887.

Kind of fish.	Eggs.	Fry.	Large fish.	Mis-cellaneous.
Whitefish.....	32,600,000	62,070,000
Grayling.....	2,100,000	2
Smelt.....
Saibling.....	18,000
Brook trout.....	82,000	7,488	1,771
Lake trout.....	155,800	6,923
Atlantic salmon.....	754,000	416,588
Land-locked salmon.....	377,500	44,017
Rainbow trout.....	429,000	49,930	16,482
Brown trout.....	84,500	26,500
Eels.....	200
Shad.....	10,718,000	99,752,000
Carp.....	136,163
Tench.....	1,202
Gold-fish.....	2,805
Brook pickerel.....	14
Rockfish.....	75,000
White perch.....	48	68
Black bass.....
Sunfish.....	125
Redeye.....	2,328
Codfish.....	662,000
Sole.....	19
Lobsters.....	5,000

The grand total of the distribution is 210,628,413.

NOTES ON THE SPECIES PROPAGATED AND DISTRIBUTED.

a. The Sole (*Solea solea*).

During 1886 several consignments of soles were brought across from Liverpool in the White Star steamer *Britannic*. Early in the year 24 were brought in one shipment without loss. From two later consignments 37 fish out of 49 sent were safely received at Wood's Holl, where they were kept with the hope of using them for breeding purposes.

The hanging fish-globes now employed for carrying soles across the Atlantic give better results than any other form of apparatus as yet devised for the purpose.

b. The Halibut (*Hippoglossus hippoglossus*).

As the fishing for this important species in moderate depths has become unprofitable because of the scarcity of the fish it was earnestly desired to begin its artificial propagation during the present year. The

Grampus was accordingly sent to the fishing-banks in the latter part of September in search of halibut. It was found that the spawning season was near at hand. The fish were caught in deep water, from 200 to 350 fathoms, and placed in the vessel's well apparently in good condition; but all of them died within twenty-four hours, probably on account of the difference in pressure and temperature. Attempts will be made to get halibut from shallow water in the Gulf of St. Lawrence or on the west coast of Newfoundland for future experiments, when it is expected that they will better endure transportation in the vessel.

c. *The Codfish (Gadus morrhua).*

The apparatus which proved most satisfactory for hatching the floating eggs of the cod was the tidal box devised by Colonel McDonald in 1881, modified by Capt. H. C. Chester's addition of inverted glass cylinders, having the mouth closed by cheese cloth and the bottom perforated for ventilation.

During January and February eggs were hatched easily in the apparatus above mentioned, but owing to the severe weather it was very difficult to obtain spawning fish.

On the 25th of January two acid carboys, each containing 40,000 cod-fish just hatched, were forwarded by express from Wood's Holl to Washington. After being forty-four hours in transit, about 7 per cent. of them reached Washington alive. On the next day 50,000 fish were sent in a carboy. After a journey of forty-four hours fully 50 per cent. of them reached the station in good condition. On January 28 a shipment of 500,000 fish in ten carboys was taken from Wood's Holl by messengers. They reached Washington on the 29th with a loss of less than 10 per cent., and were sent forward the same day to Pensacola, Fla., where they arrived shortly after midnight, February 1, with an additional loss of about 10 per cent. At Pensacola they were transferred to the revenue steamer *Forward*, which had been placed at the service of the Commission by order of the Secretary of the Treasury, and carried to the place selected by Mr. Silas Stearns for their final destination in the Gulf of Mexico, southeast by east from Pensacola Bar, in 100 fathoms of water. This experiment was made to determine whether or not the cod can be successfully transferred to Southern waters and become the object of a profitable fishery there.

In February a shipment of 500,000 young cod was forwarded from Wood's Holl through Washington to Old Point, to be deposited in Hampton Roads, with the hope of forming a colony in Chesapeake Bay.

Work of the Grampus.—During the winter of 1886-'87 the *Grampus* was engaged in obtaining eggs of the codfish for hatching at the Wood's Holl Station. In many cases the fish were taken with the gear of the *Grampus* and carried alive in the well to the station. Between 600 and 700 live fish were thus secured. Over 43,000,000 eggs were obtained; 20,000,000 were hatched and planted in the immediate vicinity of the station. Frequently eggs were obtained by sending men to collect

them on board fishing vessels on the grounds. Owing to the cold and inclement weather during much of the winter cod were unusually scarce and fishing, even under the most favorable circumstances, was poorly remunerated. The work of collecting, however, was continued whenever opportunity offered until the middle of March.

Work of the Fish Hawk.—Early in January, 1887, the crew and some of the hatching apparatus of the vessel were utilized in the work at Wood's Holl. Late in February and till near the end of March the *Fish Hawk* was engaged in making short trips off Portsmouth and in Ipswich Bay, boarding fishing vessels to collect codfish spawn for shipment to Wood's Holl.

*d. The Mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*).*

In the month of May Captain Chester secured three gravid mackerel at Wood's Holl, and from them eggs were taken and placed in the apparatus which had been used for eggs of the cod. The fish commenced hatching in ninety-four hours after the eggs had been placed in the jars. This adds another very important species to the list of fishes that may be propagated at the Wood's Holl Station.

*e. The Black Bass (*Micropterus dolomieu*).*

11 breeders and 100 yearlings were collected during the summer at the Wytheville Station. 48 yearlings were sent away during the year.

*f. The Red-eye (*Ambloplites rupestris*).*

At the Wytheville Station, during the fiscal year 1886-'87, 77 breeders and 2,125 yearlings were obtained. 18 breeders were sent to the Central Station and 2,085 yearlings were distributed, including 586 in Cacapon River and 600 in Cowpasture River. On March 1, 1887, 25 red-eyes, about an inch in length, were sent to Max von dem Borne, Berneuchen, Germany, 20 of which reached their destination in safety.

The red-eye is a good pan fish, gamey, and weighs a half pound on the average; it is likely to do well in ponds.

*g. The Sunfish (*Lepomis gibbosus*).*

During the summer of 1886, 125 sunfish, about 1 inch in length, were taken at Cold Spring Harbor and forwarded, through Mr. E. G. Blackford, to Max von dem Borne, Berneuchen, Germany, who was fully advised of their predatory character.

*h. The White Perch (*Roccus americanus*).*

Three shipments of the young of this fish were sent from the Cold Spring Harbor Station to Max von dem Borne, in October and December, 1886, and March, 1887, of which only three, from the last shipment, reached Germany alive.

*i. The Rockfish or Striped Bass (*Roccus lineatus*).*

600,000 eggs were obtained at the Battery Station, near Havre de Grace, Md., but owing to pressure with the shad work, few of them were

hatched. 75,000 fry were successfully planted in Lake Ontario, near Oswego, N. Y.

*j. The Smelt (*Osmerus mordax*).*

Large numbers of smelts were hatched at the Cold Spring Harbor Station, the parent fish having been obtained on the south side of Long Island. The hatching was rendered difficult by the glutinous nature of the eggs, but about one-half were developed. Over 2,000,000 young were planted in Cold Spring Harbor and 50,000 were deposited in Saranac Lake, in northeastern New York.

About the first of April a lot of eggs were sent to Northville Station, where they arrived in bad condition and apparently dead, but upon digging into the mass about 15 or 20 per cent. were found to be good.

*k. The Whitefish (*Coregonus clupeiformis*).*

Notwithstanding the stormy and very cold weather 129,400,000 whitefish eggs were obtained during November and December for the hatching stations at Northville and Alpena, Mich. The first eggs were received from Lake Erie November 7; the last from Lake Michigan December 13. On November 28 about 30,000 eggs were taken from two whitefish which had been hatched and reared at the Northville Station; this is believed to be the first record of their breeding in captivity. The hatching season at Northville lasted from March 11 to April 12; at Alpena, from April 22 to May 8.

32,600,000 eggs were distributed, mostly to neighboring state fish commissions; 62,070,000 fry were planted in waters of Michigan, Ohio, Indiana, and New York; 2,500,000 eggs were sent to England, 1,000,000 to Germany, and 1,500,000 to New Zealand; 5,000,000 were forwarded to the Central Station at Washington; 10,000,000 each to the State hatcheries of Pennsylvania and Minnesota; 1,000,000 to New York, and 1,600,000 to Delaware. From the 1,000,000 eggs sent to the Cold Spring Harbor Station nearly 950,000 young were obtained, and these were deposited in deep, cold lakes on Long Island.

*l. The Dwarf White fish (*Coregonus albula*).*

In January, 1886, Max von dem Borne sent 80,000 eggs of this species as a gift from the Deutsche Fischerei-Verein, by Herr von Behr, to the United States Fish Commission. These were received at the Cold Spring Harbor Station, and Mr. Mather was directed by the Commissioner to forward 70,000 eggs to Bucksport and 10,000 to Northville. Mr. Atkins received his allotment February 1. The first fish hatched out March 24, and about 51,000 young were obtained; these were planted April 21, 1886, in Heart Pond, a small lake near Bucksport which empties into the Eastern River, a small tributary of the Penobscot. Some of the eggs sent to Northville were hatched March 7, but no healthy young were secured from them.

*m. The Brook Trout (*Salvelinus fontinalis*).*

The Northville Station.—At the Northville ponds 186,750 eggs were taken. From December 28, 1886, to February 9, 1887, 82,000 eggs were shipped away, 10,000 to England, the remainder to Minnesota, Delaware, and Pennsylvania, and to the Central and Wytheville Stations. 527 young fish were sent away and 4,000 fry were retained for breeding purposes.

The Wytheville Station.—In December, 1886, 193 breeders were received from the Northville Station. In April 5,000 fry came from the Central Station. In January, 1887, 26,508 eggs were received from Northville and 75,000 from Mr. R. E. Follett, of Windham, Conn. During May and June, 1887, 750 yearlings and 2,488 fry were planted in suitable streams in Maryland and Virginia.

*n. The Saibling (*Salvelinus alpinus*).*

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—In February and March, 1887, three shipments, each containing about 20,000 eggs of the saibling, were received from Berneuchen, Germany. 3,000 eggs from the first lot were repacked and sent to the State hatchery at Plymouth, N. H., where they arrived in good condition. The sound eggs of the second shipment were mixed by mistake with eggs of the brown trout received from Germany at the same time, and were distributed in this state to the hatcheries at Corry, Pa., Wytheville, Northville, and Cold Spring Harbor. 15,000 good eggs from the last shipment were sent safely to the Northville Station March 17, and hatched soon after; but the fry refused to eat, and most of them died of "blue sac" and starvation.

*o. The Lake Trout (*Salvelinus namaycush*).*

The Northville Station.—6,150 lake trout, hatched in January and February, 1886, were sent to Ohio, Indiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee. Owing to a lack of available funds no eggs were taken.

The Wytheville Station.—During the fiscal year 1886-'87, 800 yearlings were sent to the Central Station, 50 to the Gasconade River, Missouri, and 350 were planted in streams near the station.

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—150,000 eggs were received from Northville December 19, 1885. 80,000 fry were distributed to waters in and near the Adirondacks; 5,000 to Monroe, N. Y.; 5,000 to Gloucester, Mass.; and 20,000 to Long Island waters. An attempt to rear some of the fry at the hatchery was unsuccessful, on account of the high temperature of the water. In June, when it reached 60° Fahrenheit, the young began to die, and none lived until September.

The Bucksport Station.—100,000 fry were obtained from eggs received from Northville. Of this number 35,000 were kept for rearing; 1,439 were placed in Craig's Pond June 17; and 2,113 in Pond B June 22. Upward of 31,000 were kept in the troughs and fed on liver, refuse meats, salt codfish, insects, and entomostraca.

p. The Rainbow Trout (*Salmo irideus*).

The McCloud River Station.—The first eggs for the season of 1885-'86 were taken on December 26, 1885, which was somewhat earlier than usual. The species seem to spawn sooner than formerly. The spawning season closed May 10. 221,425 eggs were taken from 226 fish. 30,000 eggs were lost because of high and muddy water; 15,000 were hatched for the trout ponds and the river, and 131,000 were distributed, chiefly to State fish commissions and to Central Station. During the spawning season of 1886-'87, which lasted from December 26 to April 11, 268,400 eggs were taken from 299 fish. 84,100 of these were lost from various causes; 39,300 were hatched and the fry planted in the McCloud River; the remaining 145,000 were sent to State commissions and to Central Station.

The Northville Station.—The spawning season in the ponds lasted from January 9 to April 25. 196,350 eggs were obtained from 375 fish; 25,000 were sent to the Michigan Fish Commission; 25,000 to Mr. Blackford, for shipment to France; while 25,000 fry were hatched out and nearly all of them kept at the station. 4,920 young fish were shipped away from the station.

The Wytheville Station.—During April and May, 1887, 8,000 fry were received from the Central Station, and 220,500 eggs were collected at Wytheville. During the fiscal year 1886-'87, 12,095 yearlings, 271 two years old or older, and 98,000 eggs were shipped away. 40,000 eggs were sent to Germany, 10,000 to England, and 5,000 to France. The remaining eggs and fry were distributed to private applicants, to suitable streams for stocking, and to various hatcheries. Mr. Max von dem Borne, writing from Berneuchen, Germany, on April 11, 1887, stated that the fry hatched from the eggs received were in excellent condition.

q. The Brown Trout (*Salmo fario*).

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—64,000 eggs were received in very bad condition from the Deutsche Fischerei-Verein March 1, 1886, and 40,000 came from the same source, in good condition, March 20. On April 16, 50,000 eggs arrived in good order from Max von dem Borne. 13,000 eggs were repacked and sent to the Northville Station, and 1,000 to the Wisconsin Fish Commission. During April and May, 23,500 young trout were planted in suitable waters in New York.

In July a brown trout was caught in Allen's Creek, a tributary of the Genesee River, New York, which weighed 3 pounds. This must have been hatched from the first lot of eggs received in America. One of this first shipment, which was hatched and reared at Cold Spring Harbor, weighed $3\frac{1}{2}$ pounds in October, 1886, at the age of three and one-half years.

During March, 1887, 108,000 brown trout eggs were received from Germany, but 60,000 of them were unfit to be developed. The last shipment of 50,000 eggs contained 13,000 dead ones. The good eggs of this

lot were mixed by mistake with 14,500 saibling eggs, which arrived the same day, and 50,000 mixed eggs were sent to several State and National fish commission hatcheries. 10,000 eggs were received, also, on account of the New York Fish Commission, from Herr von Behr.

The Northville Station.—20,000 eggs were received March 17 from the Cold Spring Harbor Station, having come originally from Germany. 2,500 of these were sent to the Michigan Fish Commission and 5,000 to the Wisconsin Commission. The remaining eggs yielded nearly 9,000 fry, which were kept at the station. During November and December 9,400 eggs were taken from stock-fish in the Northville ponds, but only 1,500 fry were obtained from them.

The Wytheville Station.—2,165 brown trout eggs were received in March, 1886. They were hatched at a very unfavorable time, the water being muddy during incubation and remaining so until the surviving fish were several weeks old. 286 were reared, and in November they were between $2\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 inches long. In March, 1887, 9,100 eggs were received from Cold Spring Harbor, and in May, 3,000 fry arrived from the Central Station.

*r. The Loch Leven Trout (*Salmo levenensis*).*

On January 14, 1887, the Cold Spring Harbor Station received 48,000 eggs of the Loch Leven trout from the Howietoun fishery in Scotland, but nearly one-half of them were dead. Strong and healthy fry were hatched from the remainder.

*s. The Atlantic Salmon (*Salmo salar*).*

The Bucksport Station.—205 salmon were purchased from the Penobscot River fishermen, from May 29 to June 8, and placed in the inclosure at Dead Brook. Only 147 of these lived through the summer. 1,158,776 eggs were taken from 101 females, an average of 11,473 each. Of these eggs, 1,099,000 were distributed, 320,000 being awarded to Massachusetts and 779,000 to the U. S. Fish Commission, the work having been conducted by these two commissions conjointly. 25,000 eggs were reserved for experiments at the station, and the fry were afterwards liberated in Craig's Pond. The remaining eggs were sent during February, 1887, to the following places:

Cold Spring Harbor, 300,000; F. A. Walters, Bloomingdale, N. Y., 250,000; E. B. Hodge, Plymouth, N. H., 100,000; Grand Lake Stream, 104,000.

The Grand Lake Stream Station.—About the 1st of March, 1887, 104,000 eggs were received from Bucksport. These were hatched with a loss of only 255 eggs and young, and the fry were planted in tributaries of the St. Croix River about the middle of June.

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—240,000 eggs were received from Bucksport January 7, 1886, and 260,000 on the 7th. 446,573 fry were planted in tributaries of the Hudson and St. Lawrence Rivers and Lake Ontario. During 1886 small numbers of young salmon were taken

in the streams in which they were planted in May, 1885. From information furnished by Mr. A. N. Cheney of Glens Falls, N. Y., and from other sources, it appears that more than 24 salmon were taken in the Hudson during 1886.

*t. The Landlocked Salmon (*Salmo salar*, var. *sebago*).*

The Grand Lake Stream Station.—The spawning season lasted from October 29 to November 18. 752 fish were taken, the females yielding 942,500 eggs, or an average of 1,935 each. 641,500 eggs were distributed and 214,000 were reserved for Grand Lake Stream. The distribution, according to the contributions for the expenses of the year, was as follows:

Contributor.	Money contributed.	Eggs distributed.
The U. S. Fish Commission.....	\$860.00	377,500
The Massachusetts fish commission	300.00	132,000
The New Hampshire fish commission	300.00	132,000
Total.....	1,460.00	641,500

The eggs allotted to the U. S. Fish Commission were distributed in March, 1887, to various State commissions, to England, France, and Germany, and to the Wytheville and Cold Spring Harbor Stations. The 214,000 reserved for Grand Lake Stream were hatched and planted with a very small loss.

On March 8, 1886, 19,000 eggs were sent from the Grand Lake Stream Station to the Pennsylvania commission at Corry, Pa. Near the end of June about 12,000 fry developed from these eggs were planted in streams flowing into the lake of the South Fork Fishing and Hunting Club, in Cambria County, Pa.

The Wytheville Station.—50,000 eggs were received on March 13, 1887, from Grand Lake Stream; 12,997 yearlings were liberated in tributaries of the Shenandoah River, in the hope that this would establish a run in the Potomac River.

The Northville Station.—29,000 eggs were received from Grand Lake Stream on March 19, 1886, and on April 14 they hatched, with a loss of only 575. On April 27, 10,000 fry were planted in a lake of Clare County, and 12,000 in Rapid River, in Kalkaska and Antrim Counties, both places of deposit being in the northern central portion of Michigan.

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—34,000 eggs were received from Grand Lake Stream on March 18, 1886. After a small loss in shipping and hatching, 31,020 fry were placed in two lakes of the Adirondack region. On April 1, 1887, 25,000 eggs received from the Grand Lake Stream Station were repacked and shipped to Leon d'Halloy, vice-president of the fish commission of the Lower Seine, France.

*n. The Shad (*Clupea sapidissima*).*

During the season of 1886 over 90,000,000 shad fry were distributed. Now, as the number of shad taken for market was less than 6,000,000 it will be seen that for every adult shad captured 15 young shad, artificially hatched, were placed in the waters. As the cost of this production and distribution was less than \$20,000 the young fish were obtained and distributed all over the United States at the rate of about \$215 for a million, or about 46 fry for a cent. In 1885, which showed a great improvement over previous years, the rate was about 30 fry for a cent. The total number of eggs collected and fry planted have also greatly increased over the results of previous years, as from the beginning up to and including 1882 the total number of young shad obtained was only about 200,000,000, while in 1885 less than 35,000,000 fry were sent out from the stations.

Shad fry for distribution in 1886 were derived from the following sources:

From Battery Station, Susquehanna River	43,776,000
From Central Station, Potomac River	28,151,000
From steamer <i>Fish Hawk</i>	21,018,000
From steamer <i>Halcyon</i>	310,000
Total	93,255,000

The following statement shows the general planting summarized by the streams or drainage basins in which the fish were deposited:

To tributaries of Narragansett Bay	2,534,000
To tributaries of Long Island Sound	749,000
To Hudson River	2,312,000
To Delaware River	21,618,000
To tributaries of Chesapeake Bay	52,835,000
To tributaries of Albemarle Sound	1,990,000
To tributaries of the Atlantic south of Albemarle Sound	4,183,000
To Mississippi River and minor tributaries of the Gulf of Mexico	4,758,000
To Colorado River, tributary of the Gulf of California	850,000
To Columbia River basin	850,000
Total	92,679,000

The Fort Washington Station.—The first ripe shad was taken April 16. From that time until near the end of May the run of fish was abundant and reasonably steady. The maximum number of eggs taken in one day was 3,503,000, on April 22; the period of greatest activity, was from April 20 to 27, inclusive, when 16,017,000 were procured, being nearly one-half of the entire number obtained during the season. In all, 36,362,000 eggs were collected. The number hatched and planted from the station in waters near by, was 3,154,000. The number forwarded to the Central Station was 33,208,000.

The Central Station.—The number of eggs received alive from Fort Washington was 28,283,000. Of these, 1,586,000 were transferred to other stations, and the number of fry sent out to be planted was

24,997,000. The cost of collecting, developing, and transporting the eggs at this and the Fort Washington stations was \$3,796.45, which is at the rate of \$127.66 per million, or 78 shad for one cent. There has been a marked gradual increase in efficiency of the force in transporting and hatching eggs, the percentage of loss diminishing year by year from 1883, when it was 29 per cent., to 1884, when it was 26 per cent., to 1885, when it was 10 per cent., while in 1886 it was only 7 per cent.

The Battery Station.—The work of the shad season began April 18 and ended June 10. The first run of fish continued for a week. All the runs of the season were very large. The number of eggs collected was 60,766,000. The supply of hatching apparatus was inadequate to meet the requirements. The number of fry hatched was 45,231,000, the percentage of hatching being 74.4; 43,776,000 fry were shipped away and deposited mainly in the Susquehanna River and other tributaries of the northern part of Chesapeake Bay; 1,000,000 fry were sent to Oregon, besides 585,000 eggs, resulting in a deposit of 850,000 fry in the Columbia River.

Work of the Fish Hawk.—From April 26 to May 1 the *Fish Hawk* visited the fishing shores and gillers in the northern end of Chesapeake Bay, and obtained 2,192,500 eggs for the Battery Station. During most of May the vessel was engaged on the Delaware in transporting spawntakers, and in collecting, transferring, and depositing eggs. 34,454,500 eggs were obtained, from which 23,196,000 fry were hatched on board and 21,018,000 deposited in the Delaware River.

Work of the Halcyon.—From April 27 to May 23 the steamer *Halcyon* was occupied in Chesapeake Bay and in the Delaware River in gathering, transferring, and hatching eggs, and depositing the young shad. 4,561,000 eggs were taken; most of them were transferred to Battery Station or to the *Fish Hawk*, while some were hatched on board and deposited. 3,000,000 fry were received from Battery Station and deposited in the tributaries of the Upper Chesapeake.

The Cold Spring Harbor Station.—Late in April 1,796,000 shad eggs were received from the Central Station at Washington. Only 100,000 fry were obtained from these, and deposited in the Hudson River, near Albany.

Experiments in planting shad.—Attempts have been continued to acclimate shad in the Colorado River of the West, and thus to establish fisheries on the Colorado, Gila, and other tributaries of the Gulf of California. This experiment was begun in 1884 by the deposit of 983,000 fish, followed by 998,000 eggs in 1885 and 850,000 eggs in 1886, making a total of 2,831,000, all of which were planted at the Needles. If successful, the fry deposited in 1884 should return as mature fish in 1888.

The effort to transfer shad to the Columbia River basin was repeated also. 1,000,000 fry, 200,000 eggs on trays, and 335,000 eggs in hatching jars were sent out from Havre de Grace on May 9, 1886. The eggs in jars gave the best results, and this may indicate the proper method of

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shipping them across the Atlantic. 850,000 fry were deposited in the river basin.

Plantings have been made during the present season in streams of all the Atlantic coast States from Massachusetts to Florida. Particular localities selected for planting are chosen with a view to the general distribution of shad in all waters of the Atlantic coast.

v. The Carp (*Cyprinus carpio*).

The total distribution for the season aggregated 133,769, of which 38,634 were delivered to State commissioners and 95,135 to individual applicants. 589 applications had to be carried over until another year, and the number of fish given to each applicant was reduced from 12 to 15, instead of 20 as in preceding years.

The Washington Station.—The yield of the ponds was small, possibly in part, on account of the low temperature of the entire season. Inability to drain them in the spring, because of the filling in of the Potomac flats, had an injurious effect on the carp, as it was impossible to kill the eels, sunfish, perch, and other predaceous fish that prey upon them.

The Wytheville Station.—During the fiscal year 1886-'87, 452 scale carp and 3,017 leather carp were received from the Central Station. 450 scale carp were planted in south fork of Reed Creek, in Wythe County, Va., and 1,925 leather carp were distributed to 91 applicants in southwestern Virginia and eastern Tennessee.

w. The Gold-fish (*Carassius auratus*).

The Washington Station.—During the season 2,755 gold-fish were sent out, in lots of 4 to 10 each, to applicants in 22 States and 2 Territories. 260 of the Japanese fan-tail variety were issued in small lots in December, 1886.

The Wytheville Station.—During the fiscal year 1886-'87, 50 gold-fish were distributed to 9 applicants in Virginia, North Carolina, Mississippi, and Texas.

x. The Tench (*Tinca tinca*).

Less than 1,000 tench were reared at the Washington Station, their number being reduced by the ravages of eels. At the Wytheville Station 2 breeders and 450 yearlings were received from the Central Station, and the yearlings were planted in the south fork of Reed Creek, in Wythe County, Va.

y. The Lobster (*Homarus americanus*).

The Wood's Holl Station.—During the season the experiments were continued in the artificial propagation of the lobster. Eggs were obtained and placed in hatching jars, the number in the apparatus sometimes reaching nearly 1,000,000, and the young were deposited in Vineyard Sound and adjacent waters. In April and May Capt. H. C. Ches-

ter made some experiments with a view to keeping lobsters alive with the use of a very small quantity of sea water. These experiments seemed to demonstrate the feasibility of transporting the species across the continent. On May 29, 5,000 lobsters, 2 or 3 weeks old, were sent to the Cold Spring Harbor Station. These were planted off Rocky Point, in Cold Spring Harbor, June 5.

*z. The Oyster (*Ostrea virginica*).*

At the Saint Jerome Station experiments were continued in the artificial propagation of the oyster, according to the system devised by Prof. John A. Ryder, and by other methods. The work lasted from April to November 20, and was in charge of Mr. W. de C. Ravenel. On June 23 ripe oysters were found in sufficient numbers to begin spawning regularly. Collectors were put out and afterwards placed in ponds. Spat first appeared July 29. Sand and slime were deposited so rapidly and extensively as to interfere with the success of the undertaking.

6.—THE STATIONS OF THE FISH COMMISSION.

A.—MARINE STATIONS.

Gloucester, Mass.—This station was occupied mainly in the interests of the Gloucester fisheries and for the purpose of obtaining continuous and accurate returns of their statistics. It was in charge of Mr. W. A. Wilcox, a special agent of the Commission, assisted by Capt. S. J. Martin.

Wood's Holl, Mass.—Operations were carried on during the entire year at this important station, which is located on Vineyard Sound, at the southwestern extremity of Cape Cod and opposite the northern end of the Elizabeth Islands. It is now thoroughly equipped both for the propagation of marine fishes and for the purposes of scientific inquiry. The hatching of codfish, begun in November, 1885, was continued through the winter and into the spring of 1886, and was again taken up in November of the same year. The propagation of lobsters was carried on from May until July, and experiments with reference to the planting and breeding of oysters were conducted during the spring and summer. From early in July until the middle of October the station was occupied in the interest of the sea-coast investigations respecting food-fishes and the fishing grounds, under the immediate direction of the Commissioner, and during this period it was also the headquarters for the steamer *Albatross*.

Capt. H. C. Chester, who had served as superintendent of the station since its foundation, was obliged to relinquish his position in June, on account of ill health, and was succeeded by Prof. John A. Ryder, as acting superintendent, until October 1, when the station was placed in charge of Mr. Charles G. Atkins.

A frame store-house and a short section of wharf in front of the coal

shed were finished during the summer, completing the principal structures required at this locality for the purposes of the Fish Commission. The final work upon the stone pier was also completed during this year by the Engineer Corps of the Army, and an appropriation of \$14,000 was made by Congress to enable the Revenue Marine Bureau to construct a coal shed and wharf adjacent to the buildings of the Commission. This work, however, was not begun until the following year.

The system for supplying salt water to the laboratory building was entirely reorganized by the substitution of wooden and hard rubber pipes for the iron ones previously in use, thus obviating the inconveniences resulting from the accumulation of iron rust in the water. In the present arrangement wooden mains, having a 6-inch bore, lead from the harbor to the water tower, and thence to the lower story of the laboratory, the distributing pipes from this point being entirely of hard rubber with brass fittings. A standard Gardner clock, connected by telegraph wire with the Naval Observatory at Washington, was placed in the headquarters building for the convenience of Government vessels touching at the station, and a time ball, working in the same circuit, was arranged on top of the water tower where it could be seen by the many vessels passing through Vineyard Sound. Wood's Holl having been selected as one of the principal stations of the Signal Service, and the shore terminus of the Government cable connecting the main-land with the Elizabeth Islands, Martha's Vineyard, and Nantucket, the necessary accommodations were furnished that Bureau by the Commission. An office room in the laboratory building was assigned to their use, the exposed instruments were placed upon the roof of the storehouse, and permission was given to use the flag-staff for displaying the usual weather signals.

Saint Jerome, Md.—This station is located on the west shore of Chesapeake Bay, about 6 miles above the mouth of the Potomac River. The experiments in oyster culture, described in former reports, were continued here during a large part of the year, under the direction of Mr. W. de C. Ravenel, and upon a much larger scale than in previous years. Careful observations relative to the temperature and density of the water were made in connection with the work.

B.—STATIONS FOR PROPAGATION OF THE SALMONIDÆ.

Maine.—The two stations located in this State, one at Bucksport, the other at Grand Lake Stream, are operated conjointly by the United States, the State of Maine, and one or two other of the New England States. They are both in charge of Mr. Charles G. Atkins as superintendent. At the Grand Lake Stream Station, under the direction of Assistant Superintendent W. O. Buck, 855,500 schoodic or land-locked salmon eggs were obtained in good condition. Of this number 377,500 were allotted to the United States, and were distributed in March, 1887, while 214,000, reserved by the State of Maine, were hatched and

planted in Grand Lake Stream. Of sea salmon or Penobscot salmon eggs a net stock of 1,099,000, resulting from the winter's work, were available for division among the contributors to the fund. Of the assignment made to the United States, 779,000, nearly all were distributed in February, 1887, 25,000, however, being retained at the station for hatching, in order to make experiments in the rearing and feeding of the young during the following spring and summer.

New York.—At the fish-cultural station located at Cold Spring Harbor, Long Island, and owned and operated by the State of New York, certain privileges have been granted to the United States Commission gratuitously from year to year. During 1886 considerable work was done under this agreement by Mr. Fred Mather, superintendent, in hatching the eggs and distributing the fry of the following species to the rivers and lakes of New York, namely: Lake whitefish, lake trout, brown trout, shad, and Penobscot and land-locked salmon. Experiments were also made in the hatching of smelt and tom-cod.

Virginia.—The Wytheville Station, located on the summit of the Alleghany Mountains in southwestern Virginia, is leased from that State, and has been in charge of Col. Marshall McDonald, with Mr. George A. Seagle as superintendent. Many improvements and additions made to the station in 1885 rendered it practically complete in all its appointments for the season of 1886, and more extensive operations were carried on this year than hitherto. The following species were under cultivation: The rainbow, brook, and brown trout, land-locked salmon, red eye, black bass, carp, and tench.

Michigan.—The stations at Northville and Alpena, Mich., are operated mainly in the interests of the whitefish fisheries of the Great Lakes, but at the former station lake, brook, rainbow, and brown trout, and saibling were also propagated during 1886. Both stations are in charge of Mr. Frank N. Clark. Northville Station is the headquarters for the whitefish work and is kept open during the entire year, but the Alpena Station is closed during the summer. During the season of 1886, 129,400,000 eggs of the whitefish were obtained from the fisheries of Lakes Erie, Huron, and Michigan. Of this number 56,800,000 were placed in the hatchery at Alpena, and 72,600,000 were sent directly to Northville; but subsequently 21,000,000 were transferred from Alpena to Northville. The collection of eggs continued from November 4 to December 2. Of the total number, 32,600,000 eggs were distributed mainly to State hatcheries, and 62,070,000 were hatched and the fry planted in Lakes Huron, Michigan, Erie, and Ontario, and two smaller lakes in the State of Michigan.

California.—The salmon station at Baird, Cal., on the McCloud River, was not operated during 1886, but the collection of eggs of the rainbow or California trout was continued as usual at the McCloud River Station, the season lasting from December, 1885, until May, 1886. The total number of eggs taken was 221,425, this having been a smaller

yield than usual; due to the loss of many breeding trout by disease and from the effects of a severe storm. The following season, beginning December, 1886, and ending May, 1887, 268,400 eggs were secured. Mr. Livingston Stone has continued in charge of the California work, with Mr. Loren W. Green as superintendent of the McCloud River Station.

C.—STATIONS FOR PROPAGATION OF SHAD.

Battery Island.—This station, located on Battery Island, near the mouth of the Susquehanna River, a few miles south of Havre de Grace, Md., was in charge of Mr. T. B. Ferguson, with Mr. L. R. Grabill as superintendent during the shad season, which continued from April 19 to June 10. The total number of shad eggs brought into this station was 60,766,000, of which 2,099,000 were received from the steamer *Fish Hawk*, and 2,433,000 from the steamer *Halcyon*, the remainder having been obtained by a temporary force employed for the purpose. About 44,000,000 eggs were hatched and the fry distributed. Experiments in the hatching of rockfish or striped bass met with partial success. Some improvements were made to the station during the year.

Washington.—The shad eggs obtained on the Potomac River were transferred to the Central Station in Washington, where they were hatched and the fry distributed. The total number of eggs thus received was 28,283,000, of which 24,997,000 were hatched and 1,586,000 transferred to other stations. The propagation of other species of fish was also carried on at this station, which is the headquarters for the ears and for the general distribution of young fish. It is in charge of Col. Marshall McDonald.

Fort Washington, Md..—This station, situated on the Government reservation at Fort Washington, on the Potomac River, was occupied during the shad season as a receiving station for the eggs collected from the fishing shores and from the gillers along the river. A seine is also operated at this point by the Fish Commission. The eggs are retained at Fort Washington until they are sufficiently hardened to permit of their being safely transported, when they are transferred to Central Station, Washington. Over 36,000,000 eggs were received here during the season of 1886, of which one-third were taken from the fish caught in the Fish Commission seine. About 3,000,000 of the eggs were hatched at the station and the fry planted in the vicinity. Operations were in charge of Col. Marshall McDonald.

Delaware River.—Operations were carried on in the Delaware River, with headquarters at Gloucester City, N. J., by the steamer *Fish Hawk*, assisted part of the time by the steamer *Halcyon*, from May 5 to June 3. The total number of shad eggs taken was 34,454,500, of which 23,196,000 were hatched on board the *Fish Hawk*, a part of the remainder having been transferred to Battery Island Station.

D.—STATIONS FOR PROPAGATION OF CARP.

Washington, D. C.—Many improvements were made in the carp ponds on the Monument Lot, in Washington, and a new and more commodious office building was constructed. Congress directed the filling in of Babcock Lake as an additional precaution looking toward the safety of the Washington Monument; but as this work was ordered not to begin before December, it did not interfere with the year's operations. This lake was drained and the fish removed for the last time on November 11. The Monument Lot ponds are chiefly used for the propagation of the several varieties of the German carp, but tench, golden-ide, and gold-fish are also produced in limited numbers. They are in charge of Dr. Rudolph Hessel.

Two or three ponds on the Arsenal grounds in Washington are still used for the rearing of scale carp. They are cared for by an employé of the Arsenal.

E.—NEW HATCHING STATIONS PROPOSED.

Duluth, Minn.—The following petition from the fishermen of Duluth was forwarded, under date of April 18, 1886, to the Hon. Knute Nelson, member of Congress from Minnesota:

The fishermen of Lake Superior, whose market and shipping point is at Duluth, Minn., feel the need of some relief being obtained for them from the U. S. Fish Commission, and a careful consideration of the facts as presented to Prof. Spencer F. Baird, Commissioner, and do hereby petition you to use your influence in securing for them the favors herein set forth.

They have formed themselves into an association to promote their mutual interests; their aims and objects being a better understanding of the fishing laws of States; a uniform action amongst the fishermen concerning the regulation of the sizes of meshes of all nets, and the enforcement of the laws concerning them.

To secure the artificial propagation of the eggs of both whitefish and lake trout by a fish hatchery.

To this end we have pledged ourselves to aid, by manual labor and by the use of our fishing plants and men, to procure eggs in the season for such a fish hatchery.

Realizing that the capital invested in the fishing industry is not proving remunerative under existing circumstances, and realizing from our past experience that the continual diminished catches both of whitefish and lake trout are decreasing one-third of the previous year's catch year by year, we therefore feel the necessity of providing for larger deposits of fry of these fishes, and assure you that a better sentiment is prevailing to-day amongst fishermen concerning the production of such fry.

While gratefully acknowledging the good work done by the Minnesota fish commission for us as fishermen, and the kindly interest evinced by Prof. Spencer F. Baird in the welfare of the fishermen of Lake Superior, yet we pray you to introduce a bill asking for an appropriation to establish a fish hatchery, under the instruction and charge of the U. S. Fish Commission, and have assured Professor Baird that we will, by such manual labor as may seem fitting to the U. S. Fish Commission or the assistants, place our apparatus and fishing plants to aid them in collecting and procuring eggs for this hatchery; and your petitioners will ever pray, etc.

This petition was accompanied by a letter from Mr. C. H. Evans, of Duluth, in which it was stated that if the Government would build a

fish hatchery in that city, at a cost of \$10,000, and maintain it, the people would donate a suitable site with an ample supply of good water. The fishermen of the region, who employ several steamers to collect the fish for marketing at Duluth, also offered to save the spawn and deliver it at the hatchery.

In response to inquiries by Mr. Nelson, the Commissioner replied that the whitefish interest of Duluth had not been wholly neglected, as many millions of the fry of that species had been planted in Lake Superior from the Michigan stations at Northville and Alpena; but that if it was deemed desirable to increase the work, and Congress should provide the means, a hatching station could be built at the proposed location. As a result of this correspondence, the following item was inserted in the sundry civil appropriation bill and became a law August 4, 1886:

Fish hatchery at Duluth, Minn.: For the establishment of a fish hatchery on Lake Superior at or near Duluth, Minn., \$10,000: *Provided*, That the city of Duluth shall furnish, without charge, a suitable site for the said fish hatchery.

A site offered by the Lake-Side Land Company, of Duluth, at the mouth of Lester River, on the northern outskirts of the city, was found, upon examination, to afford the requisite facilities for the purpose, and it was accordingly accepted. Jurisdiction to the land was ceded to the United States by an act of the legislature of Minnesota, approved March 2, 1887.

Clackamas River, Oregon.—In February of the present year the Commissioner received from the Hon. J. H. Reagan, chairman of the Committee on Commerce, House of Representatives, a “Memorial of the Oregon legislature, relative to the establishment of a fish hatchery on the Clackamas River, Oregon,” with a request that it be given consideration. The Commissioner, in reply, stated that the “salmon fisheries of that region could not be maintained in the face of the adverse influences exerted by civilization without resorting to artificial propagation on a scale commensurate with the importance of the fisheries, nor without such legislation as will give a reasonable measure of protection to the salmon during their spawning.” He also explained that a reconnaissance of the Columbia River basin had been made, under the direction of the U. S. Fish Commissioner, by Mr. Livingston Stone, who reported favorably as to a location on the Clackamas River, as would be seen by reference to his account published in the Report of the U. S. Fish Commission for 1883.

The following amendment to the sundry civil appropriation bill was introduced in the United States Senate December 21, 1886, by Senator Dolph, but was not incorporated in the bill as passed :

For the establishment of a salmon hatchery on the Columbia River, its tributaries or other branches, and for the current expenses of the same for one year, \$20,000.

7.—THE VESSELS OF THE FISH COMMISSION.

A.—THE STEAMER ALBATROSS.

The steamer *Albatross*, Lieut. Commander Z. L. Tanner, U. S. Navy, commanding, continued in active service during the greater part of the year. At the beginning of the year the steamer was at the Washington navy-yard, making preparations for a cruise to the region of the Bahama Islands, for the purpose of investigating the winter range and habits of certain pelagic fishes, which, during the warmer months, are of great economic importance to the American fishermen; and of making a series of deep sea soundings for the benefit of the Navy Department. She was detained in the Potomac River by ice until February 17, but left Norfolk on the 20th of that month and proceeded to sea. The cruise lasted until May 10, when the steamer returned to Washington. March 30, while coaling at Key West, the officers and crew rendered effective service in fighting a disastrous fire which destroyed a large part of the town. From July 15 to October 28 the *Albatross* was surveying on the northern fishing grounds, from the latitude of Virginia to the Grand Bank of Newfoundland and the Flemish Cap, with headquarters at Wood's Holl, Mass.

In preparation for the proposed trip to the Pacific coast extensive repairs to the steamer were necessary, and it was decided that new boilers would be required to insure her safety for so long a cruise. The expenditures for this purpose were provided for by the following act of Congress, contained in the sundry civil appropriation bill, approved August 4, 1886:

Steamer Albatross: For the construction and introduction of new boilers for the steamer *Albatross*, and other necessary general repairs, \$20,000; for expenses of voyage from New York to San Francisco, including cost of coal and other necessary supplies, \$7,500; in all, \$27,500.

The plans for the new boilers were prepared by Passed Assistant Engineer George W. Baird, U. S. Navy, of the steamer *Albatross*, and received the approval of Mr. C. W. Copeland, the designer of the vessel, and of Chief Engineer B. F. Isherwood, U. S. Navy, to whom they had been submitted for criticism. Proposals for constructing the boilers were received and opened December 21, as follows:

Name.	Address.	Time required.	Amount.
Slater & Reid	167 Charles street, New York, N. Y.	130 days	\$14,300.00
Atlantic Works	East Boston, Mass.....	120 days	19,800.00
John H. Dialogue	Camden, N. J.....	Reasonable time	27,000.00
Donald McNeil and John McNeil	Brooklyn, N. Y.....	3 months.....	16,825.00
C. H. De Lawater & Co.	New York, N. Y.....	4 months.....	17,600.00
H. A. Ramsay and H. A. Ramsay, jr	Baltimore, Md.....	6 months.....	16,538.28
Columbian Iron Works and Dry Dock Company	do	120 days	13,439.00
Oliver Reeder, C. M. Reeder, and L. B. Reeder	do	135 days	21,985.00
Pusey & Jones Company	Wilmington, Del.....	112 days	19,500.00

The bid of the Columbian Iron Works and Dry Dock Company, of Baltimore, being the lowest, was accepted, and the construction of the boilers was immediately begun.

B.—STEAMER FISH HAWK.

The steamer *Fish Hawk* was at Wood's Holl from January 1 to February 21, when she proceeded to the eastern part of the Gulf of Maine, for the purpose of collecting cod eggs for the Wood's Holl Station, generally making Portsmouth her headquarters. She remained in this region until April 12, when she returned to Wood's Holl, having obtained several million eggs, which were shipped directly as they were taken. While at Portsmouth the last part of February the *Fish Hawk* encountered a severe gale, and slight damage was done to the steamer by two schooners fouling while at anchor. The steam-launch was also sunk and not recovered until the following September.

From April 26 to June 3 the *Fish Hawk* was engaged in shad propagation in the Delaware and Susquehanna Rivers, being stationed most of the time in the vicinity of Gloucester City, N. J. The total number of shad eggs obtained was 34,454,500, of which 21,018,000 were hatched on board. From early in July until August 28 she was engaged most of the time in freighting for the Saint Jerome and Battery Island Stations, and left the last of August for Wood's Holl, visiting on the way the light-ships at Winter Quarter Shoal, Five Fathom Bank, and Sandy Hook, for the purpose of instructing the keepers in the methods of making temperature observations. Returning from Wood's Holl the latter part of October, an unsuccessful search was made in the vicinity of Sandy Hook for the English sole, which had been planted there some years before. The balance of the year the steamer remained in Chesapeake Bay, serving as a freight boat, the crew also assisting at times in the work at the stations. In July the command of the *Fish Hawk* was transferred from Ensign W. J. Maxwell, U. S. Navy, to Mate James A. Smith, who had previously commanded the *Haleyton*.

C.—STEAMER HALCYON.

This steamer, previously called the *Lookout*, was at Battery Station at the beginning of the year, where she remained until March 28, undergoing repairs. Subsequently she made an investigation of the pound and gill-net fisheries in some of the tributaries of the Lower Chesapeake, and from April 27 to May 23 was employed in connection with the work of shad propagation in the Susquehanna and Delaware Rivers. From the close of the shad season until the last of July, and again from the first of November until the end of the year, the *Haleyton* was mainly in Chesapeake Bay, acting as a dispatch boat or freight boat in connection with the stations, or investigating the fisheries. From August 9 to October 25 she was at Wood's Holl, Mass. Mate

James A. Smith, U. S. Navy, who commanded the *Halcyon* during the first half of the year, was transferred to the steamer *Fish Hawk* in July, and was succeeded on the *Halcyon* by Mr. William Hamlen.

D.—SCHOONER GRAMPUS.

The fishing-schooner *Grampus*, which was under construction at Noank, Conn., at the beginning of the year, was completed June 5, and left for Wood's Holl the same day. She is the first of a new type of vessel, designed especially for the offshore fisheries by Capt. J. W. Collins, who superintended her construction and subsequent operations. A description of her principal features and of her merits is given elsewhere in this report. The signal letters G. V. Q. F. were assigned to her by the Bureau of Navigation of the Treasury Department.

The *Grampus* made her first cruise August 12 to the offshore fishing-grounds south of Martha's Vineyard, where a week was spent in a fruitless search for the tilefish. Certain alterations in her fittings, shown to be necessary by this trip, delayed the vessel in port until the last of September, when she began a cruise to the vicinity of Le Have Bank, Roseway Bank, and Seal Island Ground, for the purpose of securing and bringing to the Wood's Holl Station, in her well, living specimens of halibut and other food-fishes, the spawn of which was desired for propagation. Returning to Wood's Holl October 12, a short trip was made to the mackerel fleet operating at the western end of Vineyard Sound, and during most of the remainder of the year she was engaged in fishing for spawning cod, which were carried to the Wood's Holl Station, and in investigating the fisheries of the western part of the Gulf of Maine, Massachusetts Bay, and the Vineyard Sound region.

ASSIGNMENTS OF NAVAL OFFICERS.

The following changes in the assignments of naval officers to the service of the Fish Commission were made during the year:

Lieut. Seaton Schroeder, executive officer and navigator of the steamer *Albatross*, was detached January 2, and was succeeded by Lieut. H. S. Waring.

Ensign W. J. Maxwell assumed command of the steamer *Fish Hawk* January 10, relieving Lieut. L. W. Piepmeyer, but July 24 he was transferred to the steamer *Albatross*, from which he was finally detached August 28.

Ensign W. S. Benton joined the *Albatross* January 13, and Ensign W. S. Hogg on the 16th of the same month.

Mate James A. Smith was detached from the steamer *Halcyon* and took command of the steamer *Fish Hawk* July 31, and August 3 Mate Hugh Kuhl joined the *Fish Hawk* as executive officer. Assistant Engineer S. H. Leonard was detached from the *Fish Hawk* December 18.

8.—COURTESIES AND ASSISTANCE RECEIVED BY THE FISH COMMISSION.

A.—FROM THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT.

TREASURY DEPARTMENT.—*Secretary's Office.*—In planting young cod-fish at Pensacola it was very desirable to have the use of a steamer. The revenue cutter *Forward*, by direction of the honorable Assistant Secretary, C. S. Fairchild, transported the fish and messenger in charge of the shipment to the point selected for depositing the fish.

Bureau of Statistics.—This Bureau has issued circulars and letters of instruction to collectors of customs, at ports where fishing-vessels are documented, with the result of furnishing the Fish Commission much statistical material.

Light-House Board.—The assistance of this Board in securing ocean temperature observations at thirty-five of the principal light-houses and light-ships upon the Atlantic coast has been continued.

Coast and Geodetic Survey.—The Commissioner has received a large supply of maps and charts published by this Survey; especially upon the fitting out of the *Grampus* in May a complete set was furnished for her use.

Life-Saving Service.—The keepers and patrolmen of this service, by direction of Superintendent J. H. Kimball, continue to report the stranding of marine animals upon the sea-coast. Among the specimens thus obtained were the following:

In March Mr. D. M. Etheridge, keeper of the Currituck Inlet Station, forwarded a rare shark, *Hexanchus griseus*, the first of this species seen on the United States coast.

Mr. E. H. Bunkers, Fletcher's Neck Station, Biddeford Pool, Me., sent a specimen of *Argentina silus*, a fish which is extremely rare on our coast, although not uncommon in Norway.

On July 5 Captain Edwards, of the Amagansett Station, forwarded a torpedo, or cramp-fish, to be mounted for exhibition.

WAR DEPARTMENT.—Permission for using the buildings and grounds at Fort Washington for the purpose of hatching shad was continued.

Signal Office.—During the occupancy of the Wood's Holl Station in July, August, and September, the Signal Office furnished weather predictions and special warnings of approaching storms. Copies of temperature reports made by observers at certain points of interest were also furnished as during preceding years.

Engineer Office.—Col. Peter C. Hains, engineer in charge of Potomac River flats improvements, gave authority to cut sods from the flats for turfing about the carp ponds.

NAVY DEPARTMENT.—The officers and crews of the *Albatross*, *Fish Hawk*, and *Haleyon* have been furnished by the Navy Department, and the facilities of various navy-yards, particularly those at Washington and Norfolk, have been extended to the Commission.

During the shad distribution in May and June the Department detailed Mr. H. E. Quinn to assist in the work.

Bureau of Construction and Repair.—The loan of two launches was continued during the present year.

Bureau of Steam Engineering.—By order of Mr. Charles H. Loring, Chief of the Bureau, a lot of engines, tools, etc., which were no longer required by the Department, were lent to the Commission and proved very useful.

Bureau of Yards and Docks.—A dredge and some scows belonging to the Washington navy-yard were lent to the Commission in June.

Hydrographic Office.—Upon the fitting out of the *Grampus* the Hydrographic Office furnished a valuable set of charts for her use in navigation.

Bureau of Navigation.—Commodore J. G. Walker furnished the *Grampus* with the Nautical Almanac, azimuth tables, and other books. He assisted also in procuring her instruments.

Naval Observatory.—Allan D. Brown, Superintendent of the U. S. Naval Observatory, detailed Mr. W. F. Gardiner in July to oversee the work of erecting a time-ball at Wood's Holl Station.

STATE DEPARTMENT.—When it became desirable to have the Roosen apparatus for experiments upon the preservation of bait, the Secretary of State directed the United States consul at Leith, Scotland, to procure and forward a set to the Wood's Holl Station.

In June the Secretary furnished, upon application, a circular letter to all consular officers of the United States in British North America, introducing Capt. J. W. Collins, commanding the schooner *Grampus*, and asking for him such official aid and facilities as might be required during a cruise in Canadian waters. The Secretary also addressed a letter to Sir Lionel Sackville West, requesting him to inform the Marquis of Lansdowne of the proposed scientific expedition of the vessel.

INTERIOR DEPARTMENT.—*Patent Office.*—The Official Gazette of the Patent Office has been supplied as heretofore; also specifications and drawings of various patents relating to fish and fishing apparatus.

Geological Survey.—The Director of the Survey allowed Prof. W. J. McGee to make a reconnaissance of Battery Island, with a view to determining the feasibility of sinking wells at that station.

GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.—The Government Printer has rendered much aid in advancing the publications of the Commission. Mr. James W. White, foreman of binding, wrapped the Commission's quota of its annual report.

BOTANICAL GARDENS.—Mr. William A. Smith, superintendent, at various times has furnished plants for the use of the Commission.

B.—BY RAILROAD COMPANIES OF THE UNITED STATES.

The distribution of fish and eggs is greatly facilitated by the courtesies of the railroad companies in transporting the cars free or at a re-

duced rate, in granting permission to carry fish and eggs in baggage cars, and to make repairs at their shops.

The Northern Pacific Railroad Company passed a car free from Saint Paul to the Pacific coast and back. The Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fé transported a car without charge with fish for the Southern Pacific region. During the whitefish distribution the Grand Rapids and Indiana Railroad lent the Commission a baggage car, which they transported free.

C.—BY STEAM-SHIP COMPANIES.

The foreign steam-ship companies, without exception, have continued to transport free of charge the fish and eggs which are exchanged between the United States and foreign countries.

Messrs. Glidden and Curtis, of Boston, furnished transportation for a Fish Commission naturalist, Mr. Charles H. Townsend, from New York to Swan Island, on board the schooner *Mosquito*.

D.—COURTESIES FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Australia.—Mr. F. Abbott, of the botanical gardens, Hobart, Tasmania, in September sent some seeds of hardy Eucalyptus, and offered to send those of *Nymphaea gigantea*, for the plant collections at the carp ponds.

England.—During the year, 61 soles were brought over alive from Liverpool in the White Star steamer *Britannic* and placed in large tanks at Wood's Holl, to be kept for breeding purposes.

Germany.—On January 28, were received from the German Fishery Association 50,000 eggs of a small whitefish (*Coregonus albula*); these were forwarded to Bucksport, for hatching and planting in Maine waters. On February 4, 50,000 additional eggs were received, and the good ones sent to Northville for lakes in Michigan and adjacent States.

During March, 1886, 104,000 eggs of the brown trout (*Salmo fario*) were received. The good ones, 35,000 in number, were sent to Northville, Wytheville, and Cold Spring Harbor. On April 16, 50,000 eggs were obtained from Max von dem Borne, of Berneuchen; these were forwarded to Northville, Mich.; Madison, Wis.; and Cold Spring Harbor, N. Y.

During March, 1887, 58,000 eggs of the brown trout were received from Max von dem Borne, and 50,000 from the German Fishery Association.

On February 9, 1887, 20,000 eggs of the saibling (*Salvelinus alpinus*) were received from Berneuchen. On March 9 another consignment of 40,000 eggs arrived, one-half of them from Max von dem Borne, the other from the German Fishery Association.

Scotland.—On January 14, 1887, the Cold Spring Harbor Station received 48,000 eggs of the Loch Leven trout (*Salmo levenensis*), from Sir J. R. Gibson Maitland, proprietor of the Howietoun Fishery at Stirling.

9.—COURTESIES AND ASSISTANCE RENDERED BY THE FISH COMMISSION.

England.—Shipments to England were made to the National Fish Culture Association, South Kensington, London. On January 15 and 29, 1886, two lots of whitefish eggs, each of 1,000,000, were forwarded by the Cunard steamer *Aurania*. On January 15, 1887, 1,500,000 eggs of the same species, followed on February 19 by 1,000,000, were shipped through Mr. E. G. Blackford, of New York. Few of these, however, arrived in good condition.

50,000 lake-trout eggs were sent by the *Aurania* on January 15, 1886, and arrived in excellent order.

10,000 brook-trout eggs were carried by the Cunarder *Servia*, January 29, 1886, and 10,000 were forwarded through Mr. Blackford on January 15, 1887.

10,000 eggs of the landlocked salmon were taken March 16, 1886, by the White Star Line steamer *Germanic*. On March 5, 1887, Mr. E. G. Blackford assisted in sending 25,000 eggs of the same species. Both of these shipments were successful.

10,000 eggs of the rainbow trout were sent from Wytheville during the fiscal year 1886-'87.

France.—During the fiscal year 1886-'87, 5,000 eggs of the rainbow trout were sent to France from the Wytheville Station. On April 6, 1887, 25,000 eggs of this trout from the Northville Station were sent to Mr. E. G. Blackford for shipment to France.

25,000 eggs of the landlocked salmon, from Grand Lake Stream Station, were shipped on April 1, 1887, to Léon d'Halloy, vice-president of the Lower Seine Fish Commission.

Germany.—In April, 1886, an unsuccessful attempt was made to transport shad to the Danube River.

On March 20, 1886, 20,000 landlocked salmon eggs were sent to von dem Borne for the Fischerei Verein. 30,000 eggs of this species were forwarded on March 5, 1887, through Mr. E. G. Blackford, to von Behr for the same association, and 10,000 to Max von dem Borne for his establishment at Berneuchen.

In January, 1886, two shipments of whitefish eggs, each containing 1,000,000, were made from Northville to the Deutsche Fischerei Verein, Germany. These were repacked at Cold Spring Harbor. A third consignment of 1,000,000 from the same station was reshipped by Mr. Blackford March 10 in the original packages, modified only by replacing some of the packing with ice. On January 22, 1887, again 1,000,000 whitefish eggs were sent from Northville to Mr. Blackford, to be forwarded to Germany.

At Cold Spring Harbor 50,000 lake-trout eggs, which had come from Northville, were reshipped on January 18, 1886, per steamer *Fulda*, to the Fischerei Verein.

On February 22, 1886, 25,000 brook-trout eggs, from Northville, were repacked at Cold Spring Harbor, and sent to the Verein per steamer *Eider*.

On February 19, 1886, 25,000 rainbow-trout eggs, from Wytheville, were shipped to the Fischerei Verein on the steamer *Hermann*. 10,000 eggs of this species were sent to Max von dem Borne on January 24, 1887. 30,000 eggs were sent from Wytheville February 7 and 14, 1887, to Herr von Behr.

Attempts to convey sunfish, red-eye, and white perch in 1886 and 1887 to Max von dem Borne have been described in the systematic account of these species.

Mexico.—By request of the minister of Mexico, 25,000 lake-trout eggs were sent from Northville, January 18, 1886, to Estévan Cházari, of the City of Mexico.

New Zealand.—On February 5, 1886, there were sent from the Northville Station 1,000,000 whitefish eggs to Mr. Charles B. Buckland, of San Francisco, destined for Sir Julius Vogel, Wellington, New Zealand. Owing to want of care in transportation this shipment was a failure.

On January 5, 1887, there were forwarded from Northville 1,500,000 whitefish eggs to Mr. Charles B. Buckland, acting resident agent for the New Zealand Government at San Francisco, to be forwarded to New Zealand. These eggs were taken by the steamer *Alameda* and their safe arrival was acknowledged February 26 by Mr. W. J. M. Larnach, minister of marine. About one-half of the eggs were placed alive in the hatcheries.

Switzerland.—1,000,000 whitefish eggs and 50,000 eggs of the lake trout were sent to Switzerland January 13, 1886, per steamer *Amerique*, via Havre. On February 2, 10,000 brook-trout eggs were forwarded. On February 15 Col. Emil Frey announced the safe arrival of the whitefish and lake-trout eggs, and their distribution to the hatcheries at Zurich, Zug, Geneva, Locarno, Interlaken, Lucerne, Brassus, Saint Moritz, Stanz, and Chur.

Assistance rendered by steamer Albatross.—Note has been made, under the heading of the steamer *Albatross*, of the services rendered on March 30 by the officers and crew of that vessel in saving part of the town of Key West, Fla., from a destructive fire.

On the 19th of July, as the steamer *Albatross* was returning to Wood's Holl from a dredging trip, the steam-collier *Panther*, belonging to the Philadelphia and Reading Railroad Company, was discovered aground off Naushon, and was assisted from her perilous position.

10.—PUBLIC EXHIBITIONS OF THE METHODS AND RESULTS OF THE COMMISSION.

At the exposition held at Louisville, Ky., during this year, a few of the appliances of the Fish Commission were displayed in connection

with the exhibit made by the National Museum. The Commission was also represented at the Nebraska State fair, in Lincoln, Nebr., by numerous articles of interest, furnished at the request of Mr. W. L. May, a member of the Nebraska State fish commission. The method of hatching whitefish eggs in the McDonald jars was exhibited, in April, at the exposition building in Chicago, under the direction of Mr. J. F. Ellis, 3,000,000 eggs of the whitefish having been sent from the Northville Station for that purpose. A similar exhibition, with respect to both whitefish and brook-trout eggs, was made in December at an industrial exposition held at Wilmington, Del., Dr. E. G. Shortlidge having charge of the apparatus.

11.—VISITS FROM REPRESENTATIVES OF FOREIGN GOVERNMENTS.

A visit was received in September from Mr. Kadzutka Ito, commissioner of fisheries for the island of Yezzo, under the Japanese Government. Mr. Ito was commissioned by his Government to study the fishing industries of the United States and the methods and results of the U. S. Fish Commission. He is a graduate of the Imperial College of Agriculture at Sappora, and has been for several years chief of the bureau of fisheries in the Department of the Hokkaido; he is also an officer of the bureau of colonization. While in the United States he inspected nearly all of the stations of the Fish Commission and the principal fishery centers. He remained in this country nine months.

Dr. Filip Trybom, of the Swedish commission of fisheries, who arrived in the United States in 1885, continued his studies in this country until November, 1886, visiting the principal fishing ports and the hatching stations of both the Atlantic and Pacific coasts and of the Great Lakes.

12.—DEATHS DURING THE YEAR.

Notice of Capt. Hubbard C. Chester.—During this year the Fish Commission lost one of its most valued members, Capt. Hubbard C. Chester, who died July 19, at the age of fifty-two years. A native of the fishing town of Noank, near New London, Conn., Captain Chester, at an early age, entered the whaling service, in which he gained rapid promotion and received that thorough disciplining which, with his natural tastes and great energy, specially fitted him as an associate of Captain Hall in his Arctic expedition. The services which he rendered as executive officer of the steamer *Polaris*, and his successful rescue of the unfortunate party which drifted to sea on the detached ice-floe, have gained him well-merited fame.

Captain Chester joined the Fish Commission in 1874, soon after his return from the *Polaris* expedition, and has taken part in nearly all of its branches of service. On the smaller steamers, before the *Albatross* was built, he was generally in charge of the dredging operations, and

also participated during two or three seasons in the shad operations on the Susquehanna and Potomac Rivers. He assisted in preparing and installing the exhibits of the Fish Commission and National Museum at the Centennial Exposition at Philadelphia in 1876, and in 1883 had charge of packing the large collections sent by the Fish Commission to the London Fisheries Exhibition and their subsequent installation. In 1885 he was made the first superintendent of the Wood's Holl Station, which was then permanently organized, and continued to fill this position until June of this year, when his final illness unfitted him for active service. Captain Chester was a member of the party which conducted the experimental work of cod hatching at Gloucester, Mass., during the winter of 1878-'79, when by unwise exposure he contracted a serious lung trouble, from which he never fully recovered. He also took part in the subsequent experiments of the same nature at Wood's Holl, and during the winter of 1885-'86 was in charge of the work. The Commission is indebted to him for important improvements in the methods of hatching cod and lobster eggs and in the dredging appliances.

Notice of Capt. Nathaniel E. Atwood.—It is very appropriate that mention should be made in this connection of the important services rendered to science and to the fishery industries of New England by Capt. N. E. Atwood, of Provincetown, Mass., who died November 7, 1886, in his eightieth year. His warm devotion to the interests of the Fish Commission, and his frequent contributions to its fund of information, made him an honored associate in its work, and his loss will be deeply felt by those who enjoyed his friendship. Starting life as a fisherman in 1816, when only nine years of age, he continued actively in this vocation for half a century, at the end of which time he turned his attention to the curing of fish in his native town. In 1857 he was elected to the State house of representatives, and subsequently to the State senate, in which he served as a member of the committee on fisheries. Captain Atwood was an accurate observer of natural phenomena, and possessed a wonderfully retentive memory, lacking only the necessary training to fit him as an accomplished naturalist. He gave valuable assistance to Dr. D. Humphreys Storer in the preparation of his monograph on the fishes of Massachusetts, begun in 1843, and was afterwards a constant helper of Prof. Louis Agassiz in his ichthyological studies. The Fish Commission is indebted to Captain Atwood for most of its information respecting the history of the important fisheries of Cape Cod, and in many other directions it has had the benefit of his varied experiences.

13.—PUBLICATIONS BY THE FISH COMMISSION DURING 1886.

Annual Reports.—The annual report of the Commissioner for 1883, of which only the press-work and binding remained to be done January 1, was not received from the Printing Office until August 11. Most of the report for 1884 was also in type at the beginning of the

year, and the bound volumes were ready for distribution by the middle of December.

Quarto Reports.—Considerable progress was made with the quarto reports relating to the fisheries and fishery industries of the United States, which were ordered printed by an act of Congress passed in 1882. These reports have been prepared by Prof. G. Brown Goode and a staff of associates, under the joint co-operation of the Commissioner of Fisheries and the Superintendent of the Tenth Census. The “Geographical Review of the Fisheries,” which, after being put in type, was transferred to the Department of the Interior, in 1885, for publication as a volume of the Census Report, was returned to the Commission during the current year, and will form Section II of the Quarto series. Only the press-work and binding remain to be done. The account of the fishing grounds of North America and of the ocean temperatures of the Atlantic coast, now constituting Section III, and the report upon the fishermen, forming Section IV, are also in type. Section V, in which the History and Methods of the Fisheries are discussed, was nearly ready for the Printer at the close of the year.

Bulletin.—The printing of the Bulletin for the current year (Volume VI) was begun early in February. Signatures were mailed to correspondents March 30, July 23, October 22, and December 20.

Pamphlets.—The following publications, mostly extracted from the Annual Reports for 1883, 1884, and 1885, have been issued during the year for separate distribution:

96. TANNER, Z. L. Report on the work of the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross* for the year ending December 31, 1883. (From Report 1883, pp. 117-236.)
97. STONE, LIVINGSTON. Explorations on the Columbia River from the head of Clarke's Fork to the Pacific Ocean, made in the summer of 1883, with reference to the selection of a suitable place for establishing a salmon-breeding station. (From Report 1883, pp. 237-258.)
98. ATWATER, W. O. Contributions to the knowledge of the chemical composition and nutritive values of American food-fishes and invertebrates. (From Report 1883, pp. 433-499.)
99. VERRILL, A. E. Results of the explorations made by the steamer *Albatross* off the northern coast of the United States in 1883. (From Report 1883, pp. 503-699.)
100. BUSH, KATHARINE, J. List of deep-water mollusca dredged by the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Fish Hawk* in 1880, 1881, and 1882, with their range in depth. (From Report 1883, pp. 701-727.)
101. EISEN, GUSTAV. Oligochaetological researches. (From Report 1883, pp. 879-964.)
102. SEAL, WILLIAM P. The Aqua-vivarium as an aid to biological research. (From Report 1883, pp. 965-969.)
103. BENECKE, B. Utilizing water by fish-culture. (From Report 1883, pp. 1101-1142.)
104. RYDER, JOHN A. An exposition of the principles of a rational system of oyster culture, together with an account of a new and practical method of obtaining oyster spat on a scale of commercial importance. (From Report 1885, pp. 381-423.)
105. SMITH, SIDNEY I. Report on the Decapod Crustacea of the *Albatross* dredgings off the east coast of the United States during the summer and autumn of 1884. (From Report 1885, pp. 605-705.)

106. RYDER, JOHN A. On the development of Osseous Fishes, including marine and fresh-water forms. (From Report 1885, pp. 489-604.)
107. TANNER, Z. L. Report on the construction and outfit of the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross*. (From Report 1883, pp. 3-116.)
108. BAIRD, SPENCER F. Report of the Commissioner for 1884. A. Inquiry into the decrease of food-fishes. B. The propagation of food-fishes in the waters of the United States. (From Report 1884, pp. xiii-lxxi.)
109. BAIRD, G. W. Specifications for building the new boilers, etc., of the steamer *Albatross*, 1886. (Printed by R. Beresford, Washington, D. C.)
110. TANNER, Z. L. Report on the work of the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross* for the year ending December 31, 1884. (From Report 1884, pp. 3-112.)
111. NICKLAS, CARL. Pond culture. (From Report 1884, pp. 467-655.)
112. SMILEY, CHARLES W. Some results of carp culture in the United States. (From Report 1884, pp. 657-890.)
113. FEWKES, J. WALTER. Report on the medusæ collected by the U. S. Fish Commission steamer *Albatross* in the region of the Gulf Stream, 1883-'84. (From Report 1884, pp. 927-980.)
114. RYDER, JOHN A. On the origin of heterocercy and the evolution of the fins and fin-rays of fishes. (From Report 1884, pp. 981-1107.)

14.—DIGEST OF THE APPENDICES WHICH ACCOMPANY THIS REPORT.

The appendices which accompany this report consist of thirty-two papers, all of which have a more or less direct bearing upon the work of the Fish Commission. A large proportion, moreover, relate to the work accomplished at the stations of the Commission and by the vessels in its service during the current year. Several of the longer papers will be published in pamphlet form for separate distribution. The arrangement of the appendices is as follows:

A.—THE FISHERIES.

This appendix consists of a comprehensive report by the Commissioner, Prof. Spencer F. Baird, upon the Sea Fisheries of Eastern North America. The paper was mostly prepared in 1877 and 1878, but was withheld from year to year for revision and completion, until it became evident that the author's declining health would prevent his giving the subject further attention. It is an important contribution to the literature of the American fisheries, and shows much careful research and thoughtful study.

B.—SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION.

Four papers are included in this appendix, two relating to fishes and two to marine invertebrates. The first is by Prof. D. S. Jordan and Mr. D. K. Goss, his assistant, upon the flounders and soles of America and Europe; the second is by Professor Jordan and Mr. C. H. Eigenmann, upon the *Sciaenidæ* (drum-fishes, etc.), of the same region. The former is illustrated by 23 figures the latter by 12 figures. Prof. Edwin Linton reports upon the *Entozoa*, or intestinal worms of the marine fishes of New England, and Mr. J. Walter Fewkes, upon the medusæ collected by the steamer *Albatross* during its cruise to the Gulf Stream in the winter of 1885-'86.

C.—FISH CULTURE.

This appendix contains a single paper by Messrs. Bettoni and Vinciguerra, of Italy, upon the fish-cultural establishments of Central Europe.

D.—REPORTS OF VESSELS AND STATIONS.

This appendix consists of twenty-two reports, covering the principal field operations of the Commission during the current year. They relate to the steamers *Albatross*, *Fish Hawk*, and *Halcyon*; the schooner *Grampus*, and the fish-cultural stations at Bucksport and Grand Lake Stream, Me.; Wood's Holl, Mass.; Cold Spring Harbor, N. Y.; Battery Island, Saint Jerome, and Fort Washington, Md.; Washington, D. C.; Wytheville, Va.; Northville and Alpena, Mich.; McCloud River, Cal.

E.—MISCELLANEOUS.

The first paper in this appendix is a compilation, by Mr. Sanderson Smith, of the data necessary for locating and defining all the dredging stations made in the North Atlantic Ocean, adjacent to the coasts of North America, by the vessels of the Fish Commission, the Coast and Geodetic Survey, and the various expeditions sent out by European governments. It is accompanied by several charts, showing the positions of the dredging stations. Following it are translations of two papers, one from the Russian, by Professor Kostytscheff, on the chemical composition of fish products, the other from the French, by Dr. Mauriac, on cases of poisoning produced by spoiled codfish, and a compilation of the Norwegian fishery statistics for 1885.



APPENDIX A.

THE FISHERIES.



I.—THE SEA FISHERIES OF EASTERN NORTH AMERICA.

PREPARED FOR THE CONSIDERATION OF THE INTERNATIONAL COMMISSION HELD AT HALIFAX IN 1877.*

BY SPENCER F. BAIRD.

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* This paper was mostly written in 1877 and 1878, but its publication was deferred by the author, in the hope of being able to prepare additional material, which seemed essential to its completeness. The opportunity for this, however, never occurred, and his subsequent illness, while the paper was going through the press, prevented him from ever examining the proofs. The accounts of the fishing-grounds and the fishery marine are additions to the original manuscript, the former being an abstract of a report by J. W. Collins and Richard Rathbun, published in Section III of the Fisheries and Fishery Industries of the United States, Washington, 1887; and the latter having been taken from unpublished manuscript prepared by J. W. Collins.

† This analysis is somewhat fuller than the paper itself, the additional items representing points upon which information was considered desirable, but which time did not permit the author to obtain.—EDITOR.

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THE SEA FISHERIES OF EASTERN NORTH AMERICA.

INTRODUCTORY.

In the present work I propose to give some account, as far as known, of the more important fishes of the Eastern United States north of Delaware Bay, together with an account of the methods by which they are pursued, captured, and utilized, as also of their application, with some statistical tables illustrating the results of the fisheries in the region referred to. For the better elucidation of the subject, I also propose to embrace a reference to corresponding fisheries in Europe and other parts of the world, so far as these throw light upon the American species.

A limitation of the subject to the region north of Delaware Bay is made, partly in view of the fact that the fisheries of that region are much more important in an economical point of view, and can be better monographed at present, and partly because this is the portion of Eastern North America which is embraced in the Washington treaty, and of which the information referred to is needed for the proper consideration of the international, political, and economical treatment of the subject.*

* In confining attention in the present article specially to the subject of the fisheries of the region covered by the treaty of Washington, it is not to be supposed that there are no productive fisheries on a large scale further south, the contrary being quite the fact. No portion of the globe exceeds the Southern and Gulf coasts of the United States in the number and variety of excellent food-fish, their waters teeming with them throughout the year and permitting their capture, especially in the cooler seasons, to almost any imaginable extent. A few hours' labor, either with the line, the cast-net, the gill-net, or the seine, suffices to supply the fisherman with food for days; and the introduction of the wholesale means of capture (pounds and traps not yet attempted) will probably produce no appreciable effect upon the supply.

Among the species which may be mentioned in this connection are the menhaden, bluefish, and mullet, all of which yield important fisheries in North Carolina, Virginia, and farther south. The menhaden is taken in great numbers and salted in barrels, being considered a very desirable article of food.

The bluefish spends several months on the Southern coast after leaving the Northern and Middle States, and is found of very great size—from 12 to 16 pounds. During the late autumn and early winter vast numbers of these are shipped to the Northern markets, where they find a ready demand. I find a memorandum that on the 20th of November, 1872, three thousand bluefish, averaging 12 pounds each, or 36,000 pounds altogether, were shipped from a single fishing station in North Carolina.

It is much to be regretted that there is no machinery employed in the United States for securing the statistics of our fisheries, the example of Canada and of European nations not having yet been adopted. The only sources of knowledge at our command are the reports of the cod and mackerel landed at American seaport towns, as made by the Statistical Bureau of the Treasury Department, the reports of inspections of mackerel by the States of Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, and other incidental mention of local yields, such as the annual production at Gloucester, &c., as can be picked up.

Of all these fish, however, the mullet is perhaps the most important, as being taken in larger quantities and occupying a greater number of persons in its manipulation. The fish, however, are almost exclusively consumed in the South, a very few being sent to Baltimore, Philadelphia, and New York. At present it may be considered as even more of a staple than the shad and alewife, which have been diminished very materially in later years; the supply of mullet, however, is apparently inexhaustible, and is repeated from year to year, though sometimes, owing to extreme weather and other conditions, the product is less, the condition of the lower classes being affected accordingly. Indeed, it may be said to occupy the same position that the mackerel does in the North; and the increasing yield of this fishery has undoubtedly had much to do with the reduced demand for the mackerel. Although as a fresh fish it may be considered as inferior to the best quality of mackerel, it is by most persons considered superior to it when salted. At Cape Hatteras the mullet fishery is said to begin about the middle of July; about Fort Macon in September, and later further south, continuing for from one to two months at each station. The fish then come in from the sea for the purpose of spawning and enter the fresh water, being similar in this respect to the shad and alewife, although not apparently penetrating any considerable distance from the mouth. Like the herring and cod, they appear to spawn on a falling temperature, or when the waters have acquired a certain minimum. There is but little system adopted in the fishery, several individuals combining for a particular occasion and selecting one of their number as chief. The outfit consists simply of two or three six-oared boats, a seine from 75 to 100 yards long, several splitting tables, some barrels, and salt. The fish are split and cleaned, but without removal of the head, and are slashed in the thickest side for the better penetration of the salt. The fish are all fat and plump, and are graded by size and not by quality. The lower grades are worth from \$4 to \$5 a barrel; the higher sometimes bring from \$8 to \$10. Not more than from seventy to a hundred can be packed in a barrel. As many as five hundred barrels of mullets are taken sometimes at a single haul. The entire catch at Fort Macou alone is estimated by Dr. Yarrow at 12,000 barrels. The catch of a single county of North Carolina, Carteret, is given at 70,000 barrels. A large portion of the fish are bartered in the seaboard counties for agricultural products, 2 barrels being usually considered equivalent to 15 bushels of corn. They are sent by the railway lines all through the interior of the State, where they meet with great demand. Mullet roes are also considered a very great delicacy; a portion of them are pickled and the others slightly salted and smoked. They usually bring from 25 to 40 cents a dozen.

With an increased demand and improved methods of capture and preparation, there is no reason why the yield of the mullet fishery should not be fully equaled in bulk and value to that of the mackerel, as the fish itself is in countless abundance and found for many hundreds of miles along the coast.

Dr. H. C. Yarrow, U. S. A., from whose manuscript notes I have obtained the facts referred to above, states that two-thirds of the entire population of the coast of North Carolina is employed in this fishery.

Canada, on the other hand, has a special department of the fisheries, organized for obtaining the necessary data, and from which we can learn with great precision the number of vessels and boats, their tonnage, the men employed, with the yield of the different kinds of fishing, in all the districts of the several provinces constituting the Dominion. The statistics of Newfoundland, which does not belong to the confederation, are scarcely more valuable or reliable than those of the United States. It is much to be hoped that both countries will, in time, initiate and carry on a system more like that of Canada, from which, year by year, tabulated and final results may be obtained.

Having been requested by the Secretary of State to proceed to Halifax and be present during the International Fishery Convention, I have been enabled, from the testimony adduced in regard to American fish and fisheries, and still more by personal inquiries of the witnesses, to obtain a great deal of information of much value, a portion of which will be embodied in the present report, and the remainder in an extension of the subject hereafter.*

The greater portion of the statistics employed in the present report is the result of special correspondence, initiated and maintained with

* The treaty of Washington, made by the joint high commission in 1871, provided that nearly all the restrictions to the unimpeded use of the fisheries by the Americans, on the shores of the British provinces on the Atlantic coast, and by the subjects of these provinces in American waters as far south as the parallel of 39°, or Cape May, should be mutually conceded, and either party was to have the privilege of exporting fish other than the products of the Great Lakes to the other country free of duty; and that a commission should meet at Halifax, to consist of a commissioner and agent for each side, to determine what the commercial value respectively of these concessions amounted to, and if it were found that the privileges granted to the Americans were greater than those secured by the same treaty to the Dominion, a money value should be estimated for a twelve years' period and paid by the United States. It was not supposed at the time that the balance might be on the other side.

This convention was organized in obedience to the provisions of the treaty at Halifax on the 15th of June, and was represented by Hon. E. H. Kellogg on the part of the United States, and Sir Alexander T. Galt on the part of Great Britain, the third commissioner, in accordance with the provision of the treaty, being Mr. Maurice Delfosse, the minister from Belgium to the United States. Mr. Dwight Foster, of Boston, was the agent for the American cause, and Mr. F. C. Ford, of London, for the British. Mr. J. H. G. Bergne, of the foreign office, London, was chosen as secretary of the joint convention.

Subsequently the selection of counsel was authorized to assist the agents in their labors, those for the United States being Mr. Richard H. Dana, Jr., of Boston, and Mr. William H. Trescot, of Washington; the British counsel being one for each province, namely: Mr. Joseph Doutre, for Canada; Mr. S. R. Thomson, for New Brunswick; Mr. Wetherbe, for Nova Scotia; Mr. Davies, for Prince Edward Island; and Mr. Wheteway, for Newfoundland.

It is not my province to refer to the history and results of this convention excepting so far as relates to the testimony available for the objects of the present report. Suffice it to say that a vast body of testimony was taken on both sides, much of it contradictory, but leaving a residuum of well-established fact, and that this was supplemented by personal inquiries and special conference with the most intelligent witnesses.

different parts of the country for the purpose, being partly the result of answers to a series of questions issued in printed circulars prepared for the purpose.

The reports of the Massachusetts commissioners of inland fisheries have furnished much valuable information, as well as the report of the commissioner of Maine.

Colonel Lyman, one of the Massachusetts commissioners, has also supplied some manuscript records of the weirs and pounds of Massachusetts, which have contributed greatly in making up these statistical tables. Especially important, too, have been communications from Capt. N. E. Atwood, of Provincetown; Capt. Prince Crowell, of East Dennis; Vinal N. Edwards, of Wood's Holl; Mr. Samuel Powel, of Newport, R. I.; Capt. Benj. Ashby, jr., of Noank, Conn.; Captain Hurlbut, of Gloucester; Captain Babson, collector of the port of Gloucester, and others hereafter enumerated.

To Mr. G. Brown Goode, assistant of the U. S. Fish Commission, I am indebted for very important service in collecting information and preparation of statistical tables, nearly all of which have been made up by him for the purpose. The primary divisions into which an article like the present will naturally fall are as follows:

I. *The natural history or biology.*—This considers the fishes and certain other marine animals as they occur in nature, and without particular reference to their relations to man, except incidentally, or as they existed in North America before its occupation by the white man. Under this head will be included, first, an account of the individual habits and general history of each species included in my subject, and next a general view of our marine fishes as a whole; *e. g.*, their physical and mutual relationships; their migrations and movements; their abundance; their food; their diseases and fatalities; and finally, their reproduction and growth.

II. *Methods of capture.*—After consideration of the inhabitants of the sea, without any special relation to man, we naturally proceed to the history of the various methods by which they are pursued and captured; this involving the subject of fishing grounds, boats and vessels, men, the apparatus of capture, bait, manner of fishing, packing on shipboard, and disposition of offal. Results of the fisheries and their statistics will naturally fall under this head.

III. *Utilization of the products of the fisheries.*—As food, clothing, medicine, fertilizers, industrial applications, etc., or whatever applications are made of the fish after they have been caught. The general statistics of fishery products may come under this head.

IV. *Maintenance and improvement of the fisheries.*—This subject naturally follows those preceding, and does not usually come up for consideration among communities until real or imaginary scarcity or difficulties of capture, etc., begin to press upon their members.

V. *General political considerations.*—Under this head are included the subject of the fisheries in relation to the State, bounties, inspection, international relations, &c.

I propose to consider the subject of the fish and fisheries of Eastern North America substantially as given above, although I shall not be able to follow the various subdivisions in equal detail, indeed omitting some of them entirely for the present. So much yet remains to be known in regard to many of the topics enumerated that I can only hope that the meagerness and incompleteness of what I may say of them will call attention to the fact and secure the co-operation of others in a future more reliable rendering of the whole subject.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS IN REGARD TO THE SPECIAL IMPORTANCE AND VALUE OF THE SEA FISHERIES.

It may be safely stated that as a source of animal food to man the sea is the great fountain head, and that without this resource the supply of such food would be comparatively limited and far inferior to the demand of the various populations of the globe.

In the much greater proportion of ocean to land this reservoir of food is practically inexhaustible, and not only do the people living near its shores find a daily supply for consumption in a fresh state, but by proper methods of preparation and preservation the product of the sea can be fitted for long-continued keeping and for transportation to distant markets, where fishing is difficult, or into the interior, where it is impracticable. It is not a little remarkable that abundant as is the supply of fish in the warmer portions of the world it is impossible to preserve them there, and consequently, in Catholic countries especially, where the consumption of fish on certain days is a necessity, the colder countries of the North are drawn upon to furnish cod, haddock, hake, herring, etc., to their own great profit. It is difficult to make a calculation as to the comparative amount of animal food derived from the ocean and the land, but it is stated (Report of the British Sea Fisheries, 1866, I, p. xvi) that the weight of trawled fish supplied to the London market amounts to 300 tons daily, and is nearly equal to the total amount of beef, and that the price paid to the fishermen for this food is only one eighth of that paid to the first producer of the beef. It is also a gratifying and important consideration that the sources of food in the sea are very far from being all made use of, and that while in regard to the best known and most highly appreciated fish improved methods are constantly being devised for successfully increasing the amount of the catch at less expense, there are a vast number of sea animals which, while highly prized in some portions of the world, and really of superior excellence and wholesomeness as food, are despised elsewhere. In time, however, such prejudices will be overcome and the various species referred to fully appreciated.

Numerous illustrations of the propositions here enunciated will be found in the portions of the present article devoted to the consideration of particular kinds of fish found in American waters. There is practically no difficulty in even a dense population finding its subsistence in the sea, both as regards the food necessary for daily consumption and for the means of securing either necessities or luxuries by means of a trade in the same commodity, this fish supply being furnished and maintained without the necessity of any previous cultivation or care, nature providing for the successions of the crop, and leaving it only to man to gather its full perfection. A spear, the bow and arrow, a hook and line, a boat, even of the simplest and most primitive character, possibly even a floating log, will answer the necessary purpose; while the more extended investments of nets, weirs, and pounds, vessels for going a considerable distance to sea or even sailing to distant waters, are generally within the reach of the successful fisherman or a combination of several of them.

The case is very different on the land, where only a nomadic people can derive support from the wild game or fowl, and this scarcely more than sufficient for daily food and clothing, leaving but little for sale or export. As the population increases, this food becomes scarce and is either exterminated or driven away, so that it offers but a scanty provision for the sustaining of life. It is then necessary to resort to the arts of the agriculturist; the land must be cleared and tilled, the seed sown, and a harvest obtained, sometimes after many months of waiting, and with a chance, unfortunately too often realized, of a partial or total destruction of the whole by storm, rain, hail, drought, blight, or destructive insects. Even at best, too, only a small margin of annual profit is left after the interest on the investment and other deductions are made from the proceeds; and although the farmer who controls a large body of land and works it by labor-saving machinery, or can gather in a large aggregate of the small proceeds of individual laborers, may acquire a competence and even wealth in time, yet comparing the profits of a laborer who has but a small tract of land at his command with those of the fisherman who has the sea for many miles under his control, we shall find the actual results to be very different in the two cases.

Fishing, as an occupation, in fresh waters, is much less remunerative than the same business prosecuted in the sea, as by the limitation of area the supply becomes sooner exhausted, and is under the influence of climatic and physical conditions and the direct agencies of man. So far as the rivers are concerned, it is only where they are in connection with large interior lakes, which take the place to them of oceans, that the most favorable conditions for the fresh-water fisheries are to be met with; and the great lakes themselves, such as those along the northern border of the United States, by their vast extent and great depth, are really, for all practical purposes, simply oceans, and furnish trout, white-fish, sturgeon, and other species in enormous numbers. Even here,

however, the possibility of the exhaustion of the fisheries is to be considered and remedies applied in the way of protection, artificial propagation, &c.

I do not refer in this to the proceeds of rivers connected with the ocean and supplied with anadromous fish, such as salmon, shad, alewives, &c. These are simply pathways for certain forms of sea fish, which enter them for the purpose of spawning and return to the sea again, thus coming within most convenient reach of human energy in their capture.

Apart from the illustrations already presented of such fisheries in the United States, I may refer to the fisheries of the Volga, which is connected with the Caspian Sea. Here, according to Von der Schultz, an enormous number of pounds are annually captured.

For the artificial culture of fish in fresh water it is probable that the carp and tench are most profitable, as furnishing the greatest yield in pounds, and even in values, for a given outlay; and as these are herbivorous fish, thriving in waters not suited to most other species, there is reason to anticipate that a great advantage will result to the United States from the measures now in progress by the U. S. Fish Commission to multiply them, especially as the climate and waters of this country appear eminently adapted to their condition.

The agency of the sea fisheries is also of importance to the welfare of a nation otherwise than merely in the actual yield of food obtained, or of other articles of necessity or luxury. The influence of a sea-fishing life in rendering men bold, self-reliant, hardy adventurers is well known, and the infusion into the general population of such an element is of great importance. The pursuit of sea-fishing has an important and very valuable influence in training men for a sea-faring life generally, there being but little practical difference between the fitting out of a vessel for a distant sea fishery and taking the same or another vessel for an extended voyage to various points of the globe in the interest of commerce. It is from the hardy population of the fishermen that the merchant marine derives essentially its material, while the armed vessels of governments depend more indirectly upon the same source for manning their ships. It is for this reason that in all maritime nations the fishing population is looked to as a source of strength and protection, supplying, as it does, an element absolutely necessary to the well-being of the country, and in many instances bounties and privileges have been extended to increase the inducements to enter upon and prosecute the sea-fisheries. The life of the fisherman is, of course, not one of ease; he is exposed to dangers and hardships which to a landsman would appear appalling, but which are taken by the fisherman in the regular way of his duty. There is, however, no class of community more liable to peril than the fishermen, their dangers being proportioned in a great degree to their enterprise. Of the fishing population of the United States, that of Cape Ann may be considered as eminently typical of the bold and resolute sailor, and every year the

Cape has reason to deplore a large loss of life and property especially as the result of winter-fishing on the George's Bank not inaptly termed the "Gloucester grave-yard."

Proctor's "Fisherman's Memorial and Record Book" gives the names of 1,252 men and 280 vessels lost in the fisheries from the port of Gloucester between the years 1830 and 1873, or during a period of nearly half a century. It is estimated that ten women and twenty children are annually deprived of husband and father by this service, the actual losses averaging twenty-eight lives and six vessels annually. The total amount of property lost in the period mentioned was \$1,145,500.

For the better illustration of the present article it would be desirable to present a statement of the product and values of the fisheries of the several maritime nations, so as to show the aggregate; and if reliable data were available for this purpose the result would be an amazing one. Unfortunately, the statistics of most nations are so inaccurate or incomplete as to render such a comparison entirely impossible. We have, however, in an important report from Mr. Richard D. Cutts, "The Fisheries and Fishermen of the North Pacific, and the Commerce in the Products of the Sea, Washington, 1872," a table of the products of certain portions of the fisheries of fifteen countries in the year 1865. They are as follows:

Codfish	\$20,730,249
Herring	17,685,408
Whale oil	6,057,967
Mackerel	4,689,687
Sardines.....	2,600,000
Cod-liver oil	3,419,896
Seal oil.....	757,838
Pilchards	375,000
Total.....	59,606,218

This, however, is merely a suggestion, and is probably far below the aggregate of that year, and much less than that at the present time.

The general facts in regard to these subjects may perhaps be best appreciated by some particular statistics in regard to certain countries, especially Norway, for which I give the figures for 1866.

Total product of Norwegian fisheries.

The following statistics of the average product of the Norwegian fisheries is given by Baars in 1866 (*Les Pêches de la Norvège*, p. 58):

Winter herring, 600,000 barrels, at 18 francs	\$2,400,000
Summer herring, 220,000 barrels, at 20 francs	800,000
Salted fish, 22,000,000 kilograms, at 40 francs per 100 kilograms.....	1,760,000
Dried fish, 12,000,000 kilograms, at 35 francs per 100 kilograms.....	850,000
Pickled fish, 60,000 barrels, at 20 francs.....	250,000
Cod-liver oil, 60,000 barrels, at 90 francs	1,080,000
Cod roes, 35,000 barrels, at 50 francs.....	350,000
Lobsters, 2,000,000, at 6 cents each	120,000
Fish guano, 350,000 kilograms, at 30 francs	5,100,000
Total.....	12,710,000

According to Schultz (Rep. U. S. F. C.), the annual catch of fish in the Caspian Sea and its tributaries amounts to 68,000,000 pounds, worth about \$10,500,000.

The subject of the yield of the fisheries of the United States and the Dominion of Canada is of more special interest in the present report. So far as Canada is concerned an excellent system of supervision by the Government enables us to gather, with more or less accuracy, the returns as to the number of vessels, of men, and the general yield for the different classes of objects in the various portions of the Dominion; and which, although these returns are probably considerably below the actual figures, still answer a useful purpose as a basis for comparison and for obtaining a general average.

Newfoundland, which is not a part of the Dominion, has unfortunately no corresponding record to which reference may be made. The case is equally unsatisfactory in the United States. Here the General Government does not pretend to exercise any supervision in the collection of statistics of the sea fisheries, with the exception of such as are conducted by a certain class of vessels, occupied in foreign waters. Of the great local business of fishing, either by means of small boats that go out to a short distance from the land or the larger coasting vessels, we have no reliable data. It is true that certain States, especially Maine, New Hampshire, and Massachusetts, provide for the inspection of pickled fish, which is branded according to the several degrees of excellence; and this furnishes us, as far as that class of products is concerned, with tolerably reliable information. Other products, however, are unrecorded, and only an approximation to the amount can be made. The State of Massachusetts has, however, lately undertaken to secure reliable facts under this head, and the commissioners of inland fisheries have been empowered to require, under suitable penalties, an annual return of the yield of every weir, pound, and gill-net on the coast.

While it is probable that the supply of fish on the outer banks and in the deep sea, away from the immediate coast, is as great as that of former years, a lamentable falling off is to be appreciated in the capture of anadromous fish, such as the shad, salmon, and the alewife, as well as of many species belonging immediately to the coast, such as the striped bass, the scup, and other fish.

Fortunately, it is believed they are capable of remedy by proper legislation and protection, artificial propagation, etc., and that we may look forward in the distant future to a very considerable return to the former very desirable state and condition of the fisheries.

In proof of the abundance formerly existing I will only refer to the chapter under that head in the first report of the United States Fish Commission, in which the quotations are supplied from early historical records, extending back to the first peopling of the country by the whites. The capture of thousands of striped bass by means of nets stretched

across the mouths of tidal rivers, the schools of scup so thick that they crowded each other out of the water in their passage, single hauls of from three to five thousand shad, and of from one to nine hundred thousand alewives with the small nets used at that time, the taking of a hundred sturgeon with the hook and line in a day, and other similar facts all going to prove the general statement. A fisherman could, in a few hours and within a short distance from his home, fill his boat with cod, haddock, halibut, and other valuable species, and could take hundreds of pounds where now from one to ten would be considered a satisfactory return under the same circumstances.

As already stated, however, we may look forward, if not to the former state of things, yet to a great improvement on the present condition, and to this the efforts of State governments as well as of the General Government and of the Dominion of Canada are being directed with the utmost zeal, seconded by a growing public sentiment.

It may be remarked that the number of shad and herring (alewives) barreled on the Potomac River as the result of six months' fishing is equal to the entire yield of the Scottish fisheries for the entire year of 1873, one of their most successful years.

In an appendix to the Documents and Proceedings of the Halifax Commission, pp. 3360 *et seq.*, prepared by Mr. Goode, will be found a statement, as approximately accurate as possible, of the yield of the shore fisheries returned in the year 1876, with partial returns for 1877. These, it will be understood, are entirely the results of the inshore fisheries, with scarcely an exception, the capture being made by pounds, traps, or gill-nets, set either on or close in shore, or by line-fishing from open boats, also close to the land.

I have also compiled a table of the sea fisheries of Canada for the year 1876, rearranging the tables of the report of the minister of marine and fisheries, so as to show what are purely sea fisheries, what are fresh water, and what are incidental products. In preparing this table I have converted the estimates of the weight of dry, smoked, and pickled fish into their estimated weight when fresh, so as to supply a more ready comparison. It is extremely difficult to obtain any estimate of the yield of the distant fisheries, prosecuted in vessels and from the ports of the United States. The report of the Washington Bureau of Statistics for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1877, enumerates:

	Pounds.
Codfish	71,373,900
Mackerel	30,542,500
Herring	22,328,700
Other fish.....	11,503,540
Fresh fish, not cured	99,677,911

A second column gives the estimated weight of these fish when fresh, and is obtained in making up the table of Canadian statistics by multiplying the weight of the codfish by three; and adding one-fifth, or 20

per cent., to the weights of the herring and mackerel. We have thus an aggregate which we are sure is very far below the proper figures.

Within the last two years a very great increase in the demand for fish fresh from the sea has sprung up in the United States, most portions of the interior being now regularly supplied. To this end the improved methods of preservation and transportation have greatly conduced. The use of ice in its various applications,* the employment of refrigerating chests and refrigerator steamboats and cars and other devices, permits the transportation of fish many miles in a brief space of time. During the present year salmon have been loaded in cars on the Restigouche River and delivered in New York in thirty hours. The fish are packed in boxes with snow and placed in a refrigerator car supplied with a quantity of ice, so that on arriving in New York the snow is generally entirely unmelted. Fish are packed in chests in Florida and delivered in New York by steamer in the same manner. Fish taken in pounds or gill-nets or with lines along the coast are concentrated at shipping points and forwarded by rail or in smacks, properly iced. They are then repacked and sent by various lines of conveyance to their distant markets.

Such is now the method and system adopted in this business that it becomes very difficult to obtain fresh fish in seaport towns, the machinery of collecting and transporting being so arranged as to prevent, to a very great extent, the diversion of any portion of the stock to the local consumption. Indeed, it is not at all uncommon for fish to be sent directly away from a village on or near the coast to New York or Boston in a general shipment to market, and afterwards returned to its starting point for consumption. One supposed evidence of an increasing scarcity of fish is the increase in price at such stations. This is, however, a fallacious argument, as the market is regulated by the rates obtainable in the centers of supply rather than elsewhere, and the local prices necessarily must correspond. The proprietor of a weir or pound generally has his entire catch pre-engaged to the wholesale dealer in New York or Boston, and he cannot keep his accounts satisfactorily if he permits any portion to be diverted by the way. Formerly, before the introduction of the use of ice and the improved system of transportation, whenever a great catch of fish was made, the principal market would be found at a point on or near the landing, the fish being taken in wagons and peddled in the interior, but always over a limited area, the result being that prices were usually or frequently very low, and not remunerative, in cases of a glut in the market. It is to the interest of fishermen, of course, that there should be no danger of such a glut, and that all the catch be disposed at a fair price.

* In 1874 there were 25,000 tons of ice brought from Norway to Hull, for the preservation of fish taken by trawl nets.

I.—NATURAL HISTORY.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS IN REGARD TO THE SPECIES OF FOOD-FISHES OF THE EASTERN COAST OF THE UNITED STATES AND OF THE DOMINION OF CANADA.

The peculiar difficulties of investigating the natural history and general character of the inhabitants of the sea, excepting so far as they can be observed in aquaria, have tended very greatly to prevent the acquisition of satisfactory information in relation to their habits and characteristics; and it is therefore not surprising that our knowledge of this portion of the animal kingdom is far inferior to that of species belonging to the land. This proposition applies almost equally to the fish of all countries, there being very few species, even on the coast of Europe, the biology of which has been worked out in a satisfactory manner. Of a few species we know more than we do of others, especially of the salmon, several kinds of herring, and the cod. All these, as constituting an important source of wealth, have been investigated by scientific commissions, organized by Governments, and embracing men trained to research, and competent to do the work assigned them.

With an enlightened appreciation of the importance of this subject, the Norwegian Government has, for a number of years, employed some of its best naturalists, such as Professor Sars, Prof. A. Böeck, Mr. Robert Collett, and others, in these inquiries, providing them with all the necessary facilities. The inherent difficulties in the way will be readily appreciated, in view of the fact that even under such circumstances the investigators have not succeeded as yet in entirely working out the problems submitted to them for solution, but year by year further discoveries have been made, the sum of which constitutes the most if not the only reliable data at the service of inquirers elsewhere.

In view of these considerations, therefore, I trust that I shall be excused, if the accounts I give of the present state of our well-established knowledge of the habits and distribution of the American sea fish be more or less meager, especially as the limitation of the present report will forbid going into very minute detail. By distributing questions, as is now being done to a considerable extent, to the most intelligent observers throughout the country, and submitting particular questions and inquiries, and then by collating the results, it is hoped that a large body of facts will shortly be available.

The fishes of any region may be considered either in a purely zoological point of view, or as they would be treated in a natural history monograph, or in their relations to particular industries or to some special relation they may have to the land or water. For the purposes I have in view the subject of the biology or natural history of our fishes may be treated under the following heads:

A. A systematic list of the species embraced in the subject, including also the fishes and marine invertebrates serving as food and bait.

B. Biographical notices of the most important species. After treating them separately they may be considered collectively, or at least by groups of species.

C. The relationships of fishes in general to each other and to the shores and sea-bottom, as also to physical condition, their migration and movements, and the influence of men upon the same.

D. Their numbers and abundance formerly and at the present time.

E. Their fatalities, diseases, and destruction by natural causes and other than by ordinary human agency (which belong to the subject of the fisheries).

F. Their food, animal and vegetable.

G. Their reproduction, including their fecundity, their habits during that season, their rate of growth, and their conditions of maturity.

A.—LIST OF THE PRINCIPAL FOOD AND BAIT MARINE FISHES OF THE EASTERN UNITED STATES AND BRITISH PROVINCES.*

1. PRINCIPAL FOOD AND BAIT FISHES.

LOPHIIDÆ.

1. *Lophius piscatorius* (Linn.). Goosefish; Monkfish; Molligut.
Nova Scotia and Chesapeake.

PLEURONECTIDÆ.

2. *Pseudopleuronectes americanus* (Walb.) Gill. Common Flounder; Winter Flounder; Mud Dab (Massachusetts Bay); Sole (New York).
Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.
3. *Limanda ferruginea* (Storer) Goode & Bean. Rusty Dab; Sand Dab (Maine).
Nova Scotia to Long Island.
4. *Glyptocephalus cynoglossus* (Linn.) Gill. Pole Flounder.
North Atlantic, south to Block Island.
5. *Pomatopsetta dentata* (Storer) Gill. Smooth Plaice; Smooth-back.
Massachusetts to Maine.
6. *Hippoglossoides platessoides* (Fabr.) Gill. Arctic Dab.
Polar regions to Cape Cod.
7. *Pseudorhombus dentatus* (Linn.) Günther. Common Flounder.
Cape Ann to Brazil.
8. *Hippoglossus vulgaris* (Fleming). Halibut.
Greenland and Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.
9. *Platysomachthys hippoglossoides* (Walb.) Goode & Bean. Greenland Turbot.
Greenland to Eastern Banks.

* This list is intended to present the principal species of food and bait fishes found north of the Delaware or the thirty-ninth degree of latitude.

GADIDÆ.

10. *Pollachius carbonarius* (Linn.) Bon. Pollock; Coal-fish (England). Greenland to Cape Hatteras.
11. *Gadus morrhua* Linn. Common Codfish; Sarandlik and Sarand-lisksoak (Greenland). Polar regions to Cape Hatteras.
12. *Microgadus tomcodus* (Walb.) Gill. Tomecod; Frost-fish. Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.
13. *Melanogrammus aeglefinus* (Linn.) Gill. Haddock. Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.
14. *Phycis chuss* (Walb.) Gill. Codling (New York); Old English Hake; Squirrel Hake (Massachusetts); Ling; Chuss (formerly at New York); Codling (Newport); Fork-beard (England). Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.
15. *Phycis tenuis* (Mitch.) DeKay. Codling (New York); White Hake (Massachusetts); Squirrel Hake (Maine). Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.
16. *Brosmius brosme* (Müller) White (d. @ s.) Cusk (Massachusetts); Torsk or Tusk. North Atlantic, south to Cape Cod.

MERLUCIIDÆ.

17. *Merluccius bilinearis* (Mitch.) Gill. American Hake; Silver Hake (Maine); Whiting (Massachusetts); Stock-fish. Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.

SCORPÆNIDÆ.

18. *Sebastes marinus*; Linn. (d. @ s.). Norway Haddock; Hemdurgan; Red-fish; Bream (Maine); Rose-fish; Snapper (Massachusetts Bay, Storer); Red Sea-perch (New York); Red Perch (Eastport). Polar regions to Block Island.

LABRIDÆ.

19. *Tautoga onitis* (Linn.) Gthr. Black-fish; Tautog. Bay of Fundy to South Carolina; New York.
20. *Tautogolabrus adspersus* (Walbaum) Gill. Burgall or Bergall (New York); Cunner or Conner; Chogset (New England); Bluefish or Blue Perch. Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.

XIPHIDÆ.

22. *Xiphias gladius* Linn. Common Swordfish.
Nova Scotia to West Indies.
23. *Tetrapturus albidus* Poey. Billfish; Spearfish.
Cape Cod to West Indies.
24. *Histiophorus americanus* Lac. Sailfish.
Cape Cod to West Indies.

SCOMBRIDÆ.

25. *Scomber scombrus* Linn. Mackerel; Wawwhunne-kesuog (Narragansett Indians, Trumbull); Caballa (Cuba).
Greenland to Cape Hatteras.
26. *Scomber grex* Mitchell (= *S. pneumatophorus* De la Roche). Chub Mackerel.
Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.
27. *Sarda mediterranea* (Schn.) Jordan. Bonito; Skip-jack (Boston market).
Cape Cod to Florida.
28. *Orcynus thynnus* (Linn.) Goode (d. & s.). Horse-mackerel (Massachusetts, &c.); Albicore (Rhode Island); American Tunny.
Newfoundland to Florida.
29. *Orcynus alliteratus* (Raf.) Gill. Little Tunny; Albicore; Alliterato; (Naples); Mackerel (Bermuda).
Pelagic, occasional on coast (found in large numbers at Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1871).
30. *Scomberomorus maculatus* (Mitch.) Jordan. Spanish Mackerel; Spotted Mackerel; Bay Mackerel (rare in Massachusetts Bay).
Cape Cod to Florida.
31. *Scomberomorus regalis* (Bloch) Jordan. Cero; Black-spotted Spanish Mackerel; King-fish.
Cape Cod to Florida.

CARANGIDÆ.

32. *Carangus hippos* (Linn.) Gill. Horse-crevallé; Jiguagua (Cuba).
Cape Cod to Florida.
33. *Trachynotus carolinus* (Linn.) Gill. Pompano (Southern coast); Cavallé or Crevallé (South Carolina); Pompynose (New Orleans).
Cape Cod to Florida.
34. *Trachynotus ovatus* (Linn.) Gthr. Short Pompano.
Cape Cod southward.

STROMATEIDÆ.

35. *Poronotus triacanthus* (Peck) Gill. Harvest-fish (New Jersey); Butter-fish (Massachusetts); Dollar-fish (Maine).
Maine to Cape Hatteras.

SCLENIDÆ.

36. *Cynoscion carolinensis* (Cuv. & Val.) Gill. Salmon-trout; Spotted Sea-trout (South coast); Spotted Silversides (Scott).
Cape Hatteras to Florida.
37. *Cynoscion regalis* (Bloch) Gill. Squeteague or Squit (New England); Shecutts or Cheeattes (Mohegan Indians); Chickwick (Connecticut); Weakfish (New York); Bluefish (Beesley's Point, New Jersey); Trout (Southern coast); Salt-water Trout; Gray Trout (Southern coast).
Cape Cod to Florida.
38. *Pogonias chromis* Lacépède. Drum.
Cape Cod to Florida.
39. *Liostomus obliquus* (Mitch.) DeKay. Lafayette (New York); Goody (Cape May); Chub (Norfolk); Roach (Northampton County, Virginia).
Cape Cod to Florida.
40. *Sciaenops ocellatus* (Linn.) Gill. Bass; Red Bass; Sea Bass; Spotted Bass (South Carolina); Redfish (Gulf of Mexico).
Cape Cod to Florida.
41. *Menticirrhus nebulosus* (Mitch.) Gill. Kingfish; Whiting; Hake (New Jersey); Barb (New Jersey).
Cape Cod to Florida.
42. *Micropogon undulatus* (Linn.) Cuv. & Val. Croaker; Verrugato (Cuba).

SPARIDÆ.

43. *Archosargus probatocephalus* (Walb.) Gill. Sheepshead.
Cape Cod to Florida.
44. *Stenotomus argyrops* (Linn.) Gill. Scup (Vineyard Sound); Scup-paug; Porgy (New York); Bream (Rhode Island, formerly); Fair-maid (East shore of Virginia).
Cape Cod to Florida.

PRISTIPOMATIDÆ.

45. *Hæmulon arcuatum* Cuv. & Val. Grunt.
South Atlantic coast of United States.

SERRANIDÆ.

46. *Centropristes atrarius* (Linn.) Barn. Black Sea Bass; Sea Bass (New York); Black Perch (Mass.); Black Bass; Blackfish (New Jersey); Bluefish (Newport); Blaek-harry; Hannabills (New York, DeKay); Black-will (Eastern shore of Virginia).
Cape Cod to Florida.

LABRACIDÆ.

47. *Roccus lineatus* (Bl. Schu.) Gill. Striped Bass (Eastern States); Rockfish (Pennsylvania, &c.); Missuckeke-kequock (Narragansett Indians).

Nova Scotia to Florida.

48. *Morone americana* (Gmelin) Gill. White Perch.

Nova Scotia to Florida.

EPIHIPPIDÆ.

49. *Ephippus faber* (Cuv.). Moonfish; Angel-fish (South Carolina); Three-banded Sheepshead; Three-tailed Porgy; Porgy (Chesapeake Bay).

Cape Cod to Florida.

LOBOTIDÆ.

50. *Lobotes surinamensis* Cuv. Flasher (New York market).

Cape Cod to Florida.

POMATOMIDÆ.

51. *Pomatomus saltatrix* (Linn.) Gill. Bluefish (New York and New England, except Rhode Island); Horse-mackerel (Newport and Beesley's Point, N. J.); Skipjack (North Carolina); Green-fish (Virginia, DeKay); Tailor (Maryland and Virginia); Whitefish and Snap-mackerel (young).

ELACATIDÆ.

52. *Elacate canadus* (Linn.) Gill. Crab-eater.

Cape Cod to West Indies.

AMMODYTIDÆ.

53. *Ammodytes americanus* DeKay. Sand-launce; Sand-eel (New England).

Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.

MUGILIDÆ.

54. *Mugil albula* Linn. Striped mullet.

Cape Cod to Florida.

55. *Mugil brasiliensis* Agassiz. White mullet.

ATHERINIDÆ.

56. *Chirostoma notata* (Mitch.) Gill. Silversides; Friar (New England). Maine to Florida.

BELONIDÆ.

57. *Belone longirostris* (Mitch.) Gill. Silver gar; Bill-fish.
Cape Cod to Florida.

SCOMBERESOCIDÆ.

58. *Scomberesox saurus* (Walb.) Fleming. Skipper; Saury; Skip-jack.
Nova Scotia to Florida.

CYPRINODONTIDÆ.

59. *Cyprinodon variegatus* Lac.
Cape Cod to Florida.

MICROSTOMIDÆ.

60. *Mallotus villosus* (Müller) Cuv. Capelin.
Polar regions to Nova Scotia.

61. *Osmerus mordax* (Mitch.) Gill. Smelt.
Nova Scotia to Cape Hatteras.

SALMONIDÆ.

62. *Salmo salar* (Linn.) Günther. Salmon; Mishquammauqueek (Narragansett Indians).
Polar regions to Cape Cod.

ELOPIDÆ.

63. *Megalops thrissoides* (Bl. Sch.) Günther. Jew-fish; Tarpon (Bermuda).
Cape Cod to Florida.

DUSSUMIERIDÆ.

64. *Etrumeus teres* (DeKay) Brevoort. Round herring.
Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras.

CLUPEIDÆ.

65. *Brevoortia tyrannus* (Latrobe) Goode & Bean. Menhaden (Vineyard Sound); Munnawhatteaug (Narragansett Indians); Pogy, Poghaden (East coast of New England); Mossbunker (New York); Panhaden, Panhagen (New England); Hard-head, Bony-fish (Massachusetts Bay); Skippaug or Bunker (East end of Long Island); Bony-fish (Saybrook); Whitefish (Saybrook to Milford, Connecticut); Fat-back and Yellow-tail (coast of North Carolina); Bug-fish (Carolina).
Nova Scotia to Brazil.

66. *Alosa sapidissima* (Wilson) Storer. Shad.
Newfoundland to Florida.

67. *Opisthonema thrissa* Gill. Thread-herring; Menhaden (Portland); Shad-herring (New York).
Newfoundland to Florida.
68. *Pomolobus aestivalis* (Mitch.) Goode & Bean; and *Pomolobus vernalis* (Mitchell) Goode & Bean. Herring (Southern States); Alewife (New England); Gaspereau (British Provinces); Spring-herring (New England); Aumsuog (Narragansett Indians); Kyack, Blueback, Alewife, Sawbelly, Cat-thresher (Portland, Me.).
Newfoundland to Florida.
69. *Pomolobus mediocris* (Mitch.) Gill. Tailor-herring (Potomac); Fall-shad.
Newfoundland to Florida.
70. *Clupea harengus* Linn. English Herring.
Polar regions to Cape Cod.

DOROSOMIDÆ.

71. *Dorosoma Cepedianum* (Lac.) Gill. Toothed Herring.
Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras.

ENGRAULIDÆ.

72. *Stolephorus vittatus* (Mitch.) Jordan & Gerard. Anchovy.
Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras.

ANGUILLIDÆ.

73. *Anguilla bostoniensis* (Les.) DeKay. Common Eel.
Newfoundland to Cape Hatteras.

ACIPENSERIDÆ.

74. *Acipenser oxyrinchus* Mitch. (d.s.) Sharp-nosed Sturgeon.
Cape Cod to Florida.
75. *Acipenser brevirostris* Lesueur. Short-nosed Sturgeon.
Cape Cod to Florida.

PETROMYZONTIDÆ.

76. *Petromyzon americanus* Lesueur (d. s.) Lamprey; Lamper-eel.
Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras.

2.—INVERTEBRATES ACTUALLY USED AS FOOD AND BAIT ON A LARGE SCALE.

MOLLUSCA.

Architeuthis Harveyi Verrill.

The giant squid, and other species of giant squids when they can be obtained.

Ommastrephes illecebrosa Ver.

The squid generally north of Cape Cod, and the only squid of the Gulf of Maine, Bay of Fundy, &c.

Loligo Pealii Lesueur. Squid.

South of Cape Cod, and also occurring in Massachusetts Bay.

Mya arenaria Linn. Long Clam.

Ranging from South Carolina to the Arctic Ocean.

Venus mercenaria Linn. Round Clam; Quahog.

Massachusetts Bay to Florida; Quahog Bay, Me.; Gulf of Saint Lawrence (Local).

Spisula solidissima Gray. Sea Clam; Surf Clam.

Labrador to Gulf of Mexico.

Gnathodon cuneatus. Louisiana.*Mytilus edulis* Linn. Common Mussel (or muscle).*Modiola plicatula* Lamarek. Ribbed Mussel.

These two species are both said to be used as bait off Sandy Hook, N. Y. I know nothing very positive about them.

CRUSTACEA.

Panopeus Herbstii Edwards. A crab, but known of no common name.

Range, Long Island Sound to Brazil; used for blackfish, Southern States.

Crangon vulgaris Fabr. Sand Shrimp.

North Carolina to Labrador.

Mysis, sp.

Used by boys in Eastport Harbor for catching pollock and red perch.

Thysanopoda, sp.

Used by boys in Eastport Harbor for catching pollock and red perch.

Homarus americanus Edw. Lobster.

Ranges from Labrador to New Jersey.

Callinectes hastatus Ordway. Common edible Crab, or Blue Crab.

Ranges from Cape Cod to Florida, and is occasionally found in Massachusetts Bay.

3.—INVERTEBRATES WHICH MIGHT POSSIBLY ANSWER AS BAIT.

It would seem as though nearly all the species of invertebrates which are found in the stomachs of fish, as food, might serve as bait for the same species at least; and the character of the food of some fishes is very varied. The following species are among the more common ones on the New England coasts and are easily obtained and of about the right size for bait, or could be rendered so by very little cutting. Of course there is the question as to whether they would all or even many of them prove attractive to fish when on a hook, but forms closely related to some of them are now standard articles of bait.

CRUSTACEA.

Gelasimus minax, *pugnax*, and *pugilator*.

The three species of Fiddler Crabs found on the Southern New England coast.

Cancer irroratus. Rock Crab.

Labrador to South Carolina.

Panopeus.

Several species of this genus are found on the Southern New England coast and to the south of New England, one of which, *Herbstii*, is already used as bait for blackfish.

Carcinus mænas. Green Crab.

Cape Cod to New Jersey.

Eupagurus.

There are several species of "Hermit Crabs" common to the New England coasts, two or three of which, living not far from land, could easily be obtained as bait. One common species (*pollicaris*) is abundant on the oyster-beds of Southern New England (Long Island Sound) and could, therefore, be obtained of the oystermen.

Pandalus annulicornis. The Deep-water Prawn or Shrimp.

Common in the Gulf of Maine and Massachusetts Bay, in moderate to considerable depths, where it can be taken in large quantities by the beam-trawl.

Palamonetes vulgaris. Common Prawn.

Massachusetts to South Carolina. Abundant in places, in shallow water.

ANNELIDA.

Nereis virens, and other "marine worms" which occur, buried in muddy and sandy beaches; nearly everywhere.

MOLLUSCA.

There are six species of Gasteropods of medium size which might possibly answer.

Buccinum undatum. Whelk.

Entire New England coast, but most abundant north.

Urosalpinx cinerea. Drill.

Massachusetts Bay to Florida. Very thick shell, for which reason might not answer.

Purpura lapillus. Purple.

Long Island to arctic. Also very thick shell.

Lunatia heros. Sea Snail.

Georgia to Gulf of Saint Lawrence.

Crepidula fornicata. Double-decker.

Casco Bay, Me., to Florida.

Littorina littorea.

New Haven to Nova Scotia. Imported from Europe. Very abundant on the shores northward of Newport, R. I. Is very good eating for man.

Two other Gasteropods are common south of Cape Cod, but they are of large size.

Fulgur carica. Winkle.*Sycotypus canaliculatus.* Winkle.

Of Lamellibranchs there are the following:

Mulinia lateralis. No common name, but related to the Sea or Surf Clam, smaller size.

Massachusetts to Florida.

Callista convexa. Related to the Quahog, but of smaller size.

New Jersey to Gulf of Saint Lawrence.

*Astarte undata.**Scapharca transversa.* Bloody Clamis.*Argina pexata.* Bloody Clams.

Florida to Cape Cod.

Pecten irradians. Scallop.

Florida to Cape Cod.

If ascidians could be used as bait, the best three species would be the following, but I have not heard of their ever having been found in the stomachs of fish:

Molgula Manhattensis.

North Carolina to Maine; sometimes thrown up on the beaches in immense quantities; lives in shallow water.

Cynthia pyriformis. Sea Peach; abundant in Bay of Fundy, in moderate depths.

Boltenia Bolteni. Sea Lemon.

Cape Cod northward, with last above in Bay of Fundy.

RADIATA.

Brittle-stars (Ophiurans) are often found in fishes' stomachs, and might answer as bait. The commonest species is—

Ophiotholus aculeata.

New Jersey to the Arctic Ocean; low water to 100 fathoms and deeper.

Some species of common starfishes and sea-cucumbers might possibly also do.

4.—LISTS OF SPECIES, ANNUAL ESTIMATE FOR 1871-'72, FOUND IN THE STOMACHS OF FISHES—FOOD OF FISHES.

In the following lists have been brought together the principal results of the various recorded examinations of stomachs of fishes in

this region up to the present time, whether done in connection with the U. S. Fish Commission or independently. The special dates and localities are given in each case.*

Lophius Americanus DeKay. Goosefish; Angler.

A specimen caught in Vineyard Sound, in June, contained crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; and squids, *Loligo Pealii*. Another contained a medium-sized skate. Still another a large common flounder; bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*); fragments of clam shells (*Mya arenaria*); crabs; and eel-grass. Wood's Holl, 1871; E. Palmer.

Specimens taken in the rivers with herring had their stomachs filled with that fish. A. E. Verrill, Eastport, Me., 1871.

Alutera Schæpfi. (Walb.) Goode & Bean. File-fish.

A specimen taken at Wood's Holl, in August, contained a quantity of the finely-divided stems and branches of a Hydrozoan, *Pennaria tiarella*.

Pseudopleuronectes Americanus Gill. Winter Flounder.

A specimen caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained large numbers of *Bulla solitaria*.

Specimens taken, in 1871, in the rivers about Eastport, were filled with herring. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Lophopsetta maculata Gill. Spotted Flounder.

Numerous specimens caught in seines at Great Egg Harbor, April, 1871, contained large quantities of shrimp, especially *Mysis Americana* and *Crangon vulgaris*; the prawn, *Palæmonetes vulgaris*; numerous Amphipods, *Gammarus mucronatus*; one contained a *Gebia affinis*.

Chænopsetta ocellaris Gill. Ocellated Flounder; Summer Flounder.

Several specimens taken in the seines at Great Egg Harbor, New Jersey, in April, contained large quantities of shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris* and *Mysis Americana*; one contained a full-grown *Gebia affinis*.

One caught at Wood's Holl, June 6, contained twenty-six specimens of *Yoldia limatula*; and numerous shells of *Nucula proxima*, *Angulus tener*, and *Tritia trivittata*; and Amphipod Crustacea belonging to the genus *Ampelisca*.

Specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in July, contained rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; *Pinnixa cylindrica*; *Crangon vulgaris*; squids, *Loligo Pealii*; *Angulus tener*; *Nucula proxima*; and many "sand-dollars," *Echinorachnius parma*.

August 16. One specimen contained a scup and one squid (*Loligo*); Sept. 1. Another specimen had two small crabs and two minnows. Wood's Holl; E. Palmer, 1871.

* This article is essentially the same as the one contributed by Prof. A. E. Verrill to the report of U. S. Fish Commission of 1871-'72. I am indebted to Mr. R. Rathbun for rearranging it and adding notes by Professor Verrill made at Eastport, Me., either in 1871 or previous years, and notes of the fishes found as food in the stomachs of other fishes at Wood's Holl in 1871 by Dr. E. Palmer, Professor Verrill having enumerated in his report only the invertebrate contents.

Gadus morrhua var. Cod.

The codfishes devour a great variety of Crustaceans, Annelids, Mollusks, starfishes, &c. They swallow large bivalve shells, and after digesting the contents spit out the shells, which are often almost uninjured. They are also very fond of shrimps, and of crabs, which they frequently swallow whole, even when of large size. The brittle-starfishes (*Ophiurans*) are also much relished by them. I have taken large masses of the *Ophiotholus aculeata* from their stomachs on the coasts of Maine and Labrador; and in some cases the stomach would be distended with this one kind, unmixed with any other food.

In this region I have not been able to make any new observations on the food of the cod. This deficiency is partially supplied, however, by the observations made by me on the coast of Maine, &c., coupled with the very numerous observations made at Stonington, Conn., many years ago, by Mr. J. H. Trumbull, who examined large numbers of the stomachs of cod and haddock, caught within a few miles of that place, for the sake of the rare shells that they contained. This collection of shells, thus made, was put into the hands of the Rev. J. H. Linsley, who incorporated the results into his "Catalogue of the Shells of Connecticut," which was published after his death, in a somewhat unfinished state, in the American Journal of Science, Series I, vol. xlviii, p. 271, 1845. In that list a large number of species are particularly mentioned as from the stomachs of cod and haddock, at Stonington, all of which were collected by Mr. Trumbull, as he has informed me, from fishes caught on the fishing-grounds near by, on the reefs off Watch Hill, &c. Many other northern shells, recorded by Mr. Linsley as from Stonington, but without particulars, were doubtless also taken from the fish-stomachs by Mr. Trumbull. There was no record made of the Crustacea, &c., found by him at the same time.

The following list includes the species mentioned by Mr. Linsley as from the cod. For greater convenience the original names given by him are added in parentheses, when differing from those used in this report:

List of mollusks, &c., obtained by Mr. J. H. Trumbull, from codfish caught near Stonington, Conn.

GASTROPODS.

- Sipho Islandicus (?), young, (*Fusus corneus*).
- Ptychatractus ligatus (*Fasciolaria ligata*).
- Turbanilla interrupta (*Turritella interrupta*).
- Turritella erosa.
- Rissoa exarata (?) (*Cingula arenaria*).
- Lunatia immaculata (*Natica immaculata*).
- Amphisphyra pellucida (*Bulla debilis*).
- Chiton marmoreus (?) (*Chiton fulminatus*).

LAMELLIBRANCHS.

- Martesia cuneiformis* (*Pholas cuneiformis*).
Periploma papyracea (*Anatina papyracea*).
Thracia truncata.
Tagelus divisus (*Solecurtus fragilis*).
Semele equalis (?) (*Amphidesma æqualis*).
Ceronia arctata (*Mesodesma arctata*).
Montacuta elevata (*Montacuta bidentata*).
Callista convexa, young, (*Cytherea morrhuanæ*).
Cardium pinnumlatum.
Cyprina Islandica.
Gouldia maetracea (*Astarte maetracea*).
Yoldia sapotilla (*Nucula sapotilla*).
Yoldia limatula (*Nucula limatula*).
Nucula proxima.
Nucula tenuis.
Modiolaria nigra (*Modiola nexa*).
Crenella glandula (*Modiola glandula*).
Pecten tenuicostatus, young, (*Pecten fuscus*).

ECHINODERMS.

- Echinorachnius parma*.

Microgadus tomcodus Gill. Tomcod; Frost-fish.

Several specimens from New Haven Harbor, January 30, contained numerous Amphipods, among which were *Mæra levis*; *Gammarus*, sp.; *Ampelisca*, sp.; an undetermined Macrouran; numerous Entomostracea; the larva of *Chironomus oceanicus*.

A lot taken in a small pond at Wood's Holl, in March, by Mr. Vinal N. Edwards, contained the common Shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*; large numbers of the green Shrimp, *Virbius zostericola*; the Prawn, *Palæmonetes vulgaris*; large quantities of Amphipods, especially of *Gammarus annulatus*, *G. natator*, *Calliopius lavigescula*, and *Microdeutopus minax*; and smaller numbers of *Gammarus ornatus* and *G. mucronatus*.

Another lot of twelve, taken in April at the same place, contained most of the above, and in addition several other Amphipods, viz: *Mæra levis*, *Pontogeneia inermis*, *Ptilochirus pinguis*, and *Caprella*; also *Nereis virens*, and various small fishes.

Melanogrammus aeglinus Gill. Haddock.

The haddock is not much unlike the cod in the character of its food. It is, perhaps, still more omnivorous, or, at least, it generally contains a greater variety of species of shells, &c.; many of the shells that it habitually feeds upon are burrowing species, and it probably roots them out of the mud and sand.

A complete list of the animals devoured by the haddock would doubtless include nearly all the species belonging to this fauna. We have

had few opportunities for making observations on the food of the haddock south of Cape Cod, but have examined many from farther north.

A specimen taken at Wood's Holl, November 6, 1872, contained a large quantity of *Gammarus natator* and a few specimens of *Crangon vulgaris*. Another from Nantucket contained the same species.

The following species of shells were mentioned by Mr. Linsley, in his catalogue, as from the haddock:

List of mollusks obtained from stomachs of haddock, at Stonington, Conn., by Mr. J. H. Trumbull.

Neptunea pygmæa (*Fusus Trumbulli*).

Astyris zonalis (*Buccinum zonale*).

Bulbus flavus (?) (*Natica flava*).

Margarita obscura.

Actæon puneto-striata (*Tornatella puneto-striata*).

Cylichna alba (*Bulla triticea*).

Serripes Grœnlandicus (?) (*Cardium Grœnlandicum*).

The above list doubtless contains only a small portion of the species collected by Mr. Trumbull, but they are all that are specially recorded. As an illustration of the character and diversity of the haddock's food, I add a list of the species taken from the stomach of a single specimen, from the Boston market, and doubtless caught in Massachusetts Bay, September, 1871.

GASTROPODS.

Natica clausa.

Margarita Grœnlandica.

LAMELLIBRANCHS.

Leda tenuisuleata.

Nucula proxima.

Nucula tenuis.

Crenella glandula.

ECHINODERMS.

Psolus phantapus.

Lophothuria Fabricii.

In addition to these there were fragments of shrimp, probably *Pandalus annulicornis*, and numerous Annelids, too much digested for identification.

Pollachius carbonarius Bon. Pollock.

A species of *Thysanopoda* and one or two species of *Mysis* serve as food for the pollock about Eastport, Me. These crustaceans go under the general name of "shrimp" among the fishermen, and swim together in large schools. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Phycis tenuis DeKay. Hake.

Feeds largely on worms, crustaceans (*Pandalis*, &c.), and mollusks, frequenting muddy bottoms. A. E. Verrill, Eastport, Me., 1871.

Anarrhichas lupus Linn. Wolf-fish.

This species is said to feed on the sea herring (*Clupea elongata*), but in two specimens examined at Eastport, Me., in 1871, no traces of herrings were found. The stomach of one specimen contained about four quarts of sea-urchins (*Strongylocentrotus Drobachiensis*), a part of them entire, and all with the spines on. The other contained a mixture of the same sea-urchin and *Buccinum undatum*. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Batrachus tau Linn. Toadfish.

Several specimens examined at Great Egg Harbor, New Jersey, April, 1871, contained young edible crabs, *Callinectes hastatus* of various sizes up to those with the carapax two inches broad; shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*; prawn, *Palamonetes vulgaris*; *Ilyanassa obsoleta*; various fishes, especially the pipe-fish, *Syngnathus Peckianus*; and the anchovy, *Engraulis vittatus*.

A specimen caught at Wood's Holl, in July, contained the common rock-crab, *Cancer irroratus*.

Cyclopterus lumpus Linn. Lumpfish.

In the rivers near Eastport, Me., specimens taken in connection with herring had been feeding upon the latter fish. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Prionotus Carolinus Cuv. & Val. Sea Robin.

A specimen caught at Wood's Holl, May 27, contained shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*; and a small flounder.

Another caught May 29, contained Amphipod Crustacea, *Anonyx* (?), sp.; and *Crangon vulgaris*.

Specimens dredged in Vineyard Sound, in August, contained mud-crabs, *Panopeus Sayi*; rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; and several small fishes.

Sebastes marinus Lütken. Redfish; Red Perch.

At Eastport, Me., the red perch feeds upon a species of *Thysanopoda*, and one or two species of *Mysis*, which swim together in large schools, and are called "shrimp" by the fishermen. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Tautoga onitis Gthr. Tautog; Blackfish.

Specimens caught at Wood's Holl, May 23, contained the common rock-crab, *Cancer irroratus*; hermit-crabs, *Eupagurus longicarpus*; shells, *Tritia trivittata*, all crushed.

Others caught May 26 contained *Eupagurus pollicaris*; *E. longicarpus*; the barnacle, *Balanus crenatus*; the squid, *Loligo Pealii*; *Tritia trivittata*. Others taken May 29 had *Cancer irroratus*; mud-crabs, *Panopeus depressus*; lady-crabs, *Platyonichus ocellatus*; shells, *Tritia trivittata*, *Crepidula fornicata*, *Argina pexata*, and the scallop, *Pecten irradians*; barnacles, *Balanus crenatus*, all well broken up.

Another taken May 31 contained *Platyonichus ocellatus*; *Tritia trivittata*.

Others taken June 3 contained the mud-crab, *Panopeus depressus*; triangular crab, *Pelia mutica*; *Crepidula unguiformis*; *Triforis nigrocinctus*; the common mussel, *Mytilus edulis*; and the "horse-mussel," *Modiola modiolus*.

Another, on June 10, contained the common rock-crab, *Cancer irrortatus*; mud-crab, *Panopeus Sayi*; *Nucula proxima*; several ascidians, *Cynthia partita* and *Leptoclinum albidum*.

Two caught July 8 and 15 contained small lobsters, *Homarus Americanus*; *Crepidula fornicata*; *Bittium nigrum*; a bryozoan, *Crisia eburnea*; sand-dollars, *Echinorachnius parma*.

A specimen caught in August contained long-clams, *Mya arenaria*; muscles, *Mytilus edulis*; *Petricola pholadiformis*.

Xiphias gladius Linn. Swordfish.

One specimen contained mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*), and butter-fish (*Paronotus triacanthus*). Wood's Holl, Mass., 1871; E. Palmer.

Sarda pelamys Cuv. Bonito.

Specimens taken at Wood's Holl, in August, contained an abundance of shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*, scup, and occasionally fragments of fish and bones. Out of eighty-two individuals examined at one time, nearly every one was empty. Shiners seemed to form their common food. Wood's Holl, 1871; E. Palmer.

Scomber scombrus Linn. Mackerel.

Specimens taken July 18, 20 miles south of No Man's Land, contained shrimps, *Thysanopoda*, sp.; larval crabs in the zoëa and megalops stages of development; young of hermit-crabs; young of lady-crabs, *Platyonichus ocellatus*; young of two undetermined Macroura; numerous small Copepod Crustacea; numerous shells of a Pteropod, *Spirialis Gouldii*.

Orcynus thunnina. Small Tunny.

One specimen caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained eleven squids, *Loligo Pealii*.

Often contained small fragments of fish and sea-grass (*Zostera*). Wood's Holl, 1871; E. Palmer.

Cybium regale Cuv. & Val. Cero.

Stomachs often contained fine particles of fish. Wood's Holl, 1871; E. Palmer.

Palinurichthys perciformis Gill. Rudderfish.

A specimen caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained a small *Squilla empusa*; young squids, *Loligo Pealii*; Butterfish, and several other young slender fish. Wood's Holl, 1871; E. Palmer.

Cynoscion regalis Gill. Weakfish; Squeteague.

Several caught in seines at Great Egg Harbor, New Jersey, April, 1871, with menhaden, &c., contained large quantities of shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*, unmixed with other food.

Specimens taken at Wood's Holl, in July, often contained sand-crabs, *Platyonichus ocellatus*; and very frequently squids, *Loligo Pealii*.

August 8.—Nearly every one of ten specimens opened contained six scup (*Stenotomus argyrops*); one had a herring (*Clupea elongata*).

August 11.—Twenty specimens contained on an average about five scup each. Some were empty, while others had as many as nine. One or two squid were found.

August 12.—Twenty-five specimens examined contained on an average about four scup each; a few shiners, butterfish (*Poronotus triacanthus*), and squid were also found.

August 14.—Twenty specimens opened; of these one or two were empty, and the remainder had on an average about three scup each, without other kinds of food.

August 15.—Of fifteen squeague examined, three had empty stomachs, and the remainder were more or less full of scup; a butterfish was found in one stomach..

August 16.—Out of ten specimens examined two were empty, and eight had a total of twenty-five scup.

August 19.—Ten squeague opened contained a total of thirty-nine scup and six butterfish. One had nine scup in his stomach.

August 21.—Of forty specimens opened nearly all had more or less scup, with a few butterfish and squid.

September 2.—One squeague had six butterfish; another a scup, with eel-grass (*Zostera*); another eel-grass only.

September 6.—One specimen contained three butterfish, two scup, and two dotted scad (*Decapterus punctatus*).

September 15.—One specimen contained a sand-crab and a bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*).

September 18.—Ten stomachs opened contained three specimens of *Tracurops crumenophthalmus*, three butterfish, three scup, and one squid.

September 26.—One stomach contained three butterfish, one herring, one eel (*Anguilla Bostoniensis*), and three pisquetos (*Paratractus*?).

Menticirrhus nebulosrus Gill. Kingfish.

Four specimens taken in seines at Great Egg Harbor, April, 1871, contained only shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*.

Others taken at Wood's Holl, May 29, were filled with *Crangon vulgaris*.

Specimens taken in July contained rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; and squids, *Loligo Pealii*.

Stenotomus argyrops Gill. Scup; Porgie.

Forty young specimens, one year old, taken at Wood's Holl in August, contained large numbers of Amphipod Crustacea, among which were *Unciola irrorata*, *Ampelisca*, sp., &c.; several small mud-crabs, *Panopeus depressus*; *Idotea irrorata*; *Nereis virens*, and numerous other Annelids of several species, too much digested for identification.

Other specimens, opened at various times, show that this fish is a very general feeder, eating all kinds of small Crustacea, Annelids, bivalve and univalve mollusks, &c.

Centropristis fuscus. Black Bass; Sea Bass.

Specimens caught in Vineyard Sound, June 10, contained the common crab, *Cancer irroratus*; the mud-crab, *Panopeus Sayi*; three species of fishes.

Another, caught May 25, contained a squid, *Loligo pallida*.

July 27.—Ten specimens were opened and found to contain seup (*Stenotomus argyrops*) and squeteague (*Cynoscion regalis*).

September 5.—One specimen contained two butterfish (*Poronotus triacanthus*) and two chogsets (*Tautogolabrus adspersus*).

Roccus lineatus Gill. Striped Bass; Rockfish, or "Rock."

At Great Egg Harbor, New Jersey, April, 1871, several specimens, freshly caught in seines, with menhaden, &c., contained *Crangon vulgaris* (shrimp) in large quantities.

A specimen caught at Wood's Holl, July 22, 1872, contained a large mass of "sea-cabbage," *Ulva latissima*, and the remains of a small fish.

Specimens taken at Wood's Holl, August, 1871, contained crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; and lobsters, *Homarus americanus*.

Morone americana Gill. White Perch.

Numerous specimens caught with the preceding at Great Egg Harbor, New Jersey, contained *Crangon vulgaris*.

Pomatomus saltatrix Gill. Blueshish; Horse-mackerel.

Specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in August, frequently contained squids, *Loligo Pealii*; also various fishes.

Off Fire Island, Long Island, August, 1870, Mr. S. I. Smith saw blue-fishes feeding eagerly on the free-swimming males (heteronereis) of *Nereis limbata*, (p. 318,) which was then very abundant.

Fundulus piceolentus Cuv. & Val. Minnow.

Specimens caught in July, at Wood's Holl, contained large numbers of *Melampus bidentatus*, unmixed with other food.

Clupea elongata LeS. Sea Herring.

Specimens taken in Vineyard Sound, May 20, contained several shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*, about 1.5 inches long; *Mysis americana*, and large numbers of an Amphipod, *Gammarus natator*; also small fishes.

At Eastport, Me., and Grand Manan, the principal, if not the only, food of the herring in summer is a species of *Thysanopoda*, and one or two species of *Mysis*. These species are associated together, and move in large schools; they are known among the fishermen as shrimp. The food of the herring caught out in the bay by means of seines, and of those trapped in the weirs in the harbor, was of the same character for both. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

Alosa sapidissima Storer. Shad.

Several specimens taken in the seines, at Great Egg Harbor, April, 1871, contained finely-divided fragments of numerous Crustacea, among which were shrimp, *Mysis americana*.

Several from the mouth of the Connecticut River, May, 1872, contained fragments of small Crustacea, (*Mysis*, &c.).

Pomolobus mediocris Gill. Hickory Shad.

Several specimens taken in the seines at Great Egg Harbor, April, 1872, contained large quantities of fragmentary Crustacea; one contained recognizable fragments of shrimp, *Crangon vulgaris*.

Brevoortia tyrannus (Latrobe) Goode. Menhaden.

A large number of specimens freshly caught in seines at Great Egg Harbor, April, 1871, were examined, and all were found to have their stomachs filled with *large quantities of dark mud*. They undoubtedly swallow this mud for the sake of the microscopic animal and vegetable organisms that it contains. Their complicated and capacious digestive apparatus seems well adapted for this crude and bulky food.

Raia diaphana Mitch. Common Skate; "Summer Skate."

A specimen taken at Wood's Holl, May 14, contained rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; a young skate; a long slender fish (*Ammodytes*?). Another, caught in July, contained *Cancer irroratus*.

Raia lavis (?) Mitch. Peaked-nose Skate.

Specimens caught in Vineyard Sound, May 14, contained numerous shrimps, *Crangon vulgaris*; several *Conilera concharum*; several Annelids, among them *Nephthys ingens*; *Meckelia ingens*; two specimens of *Phascolosoma Gouldii*; razor-shells, *Ensatella Americana* (the "foot" only, of many specimens); a small fish, *Ctenolabrus burgall*. Specimens taken at Menemsha, in July, contained large numbers of crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; and of lobsters, *Homarus americanus*.

Trygon centrura Gill. Sting-ray.

Specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in July and August, contained large numbers of crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; squids, *Loligo Pealii*; clams, *Mya arenaria*; *Lunatia heros*.

Myliobatis Freminvillei Les. Long-tailed Sting-ray.

Specimens taken in Vineyard Sound, in July, contained an abundance of lobsters, *Homarus americanus*; crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; also clams, *Mya arenaria*; and *Lunatia heros*.

Pteroplatea macrura Müll. & Henle. Butterfly Ray.

One specimen examined contained menhaden (*Brevoortia tyrannus* Goode). Wood's Holl, 1871. E. Palmer.

Eulamia obscura Gill. Dusky Shark.

Several specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in July and August, contained lobsters, *Homarus americanus*; rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*.

One specimen contained a flat-fish, in the stomach of which were starfish and clam-shells. The common ray is often the food of this species

as is also the bonito, as many as three of the latter being sometimes found in the stomach of a single individual. Other animals that serve as food are the herring, horse-mackerel, skate's eggs, crabs, and lobsters. Wood's Holl, Mass., 1871. E. Palmer.

Eulamia Milberti Gill. Blue Shark.

A large specimen caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained a quantity of small bivalve shells, *Yoldia sapotilla*.

The common food of this species was the squeteague (*Cynoscion regalis*), and the bonito (*Sarda pelamys*). One individual contained a five-pound mackerel; another had a large codfish hook and piece of line. Scup, the common skate, sea bass, and a small shell (*Yoldia sapotilla*), also served as food. Three bonitos were often found in a single specimen. Wood's Holl, 1871. E. Palmer.

Galeocerdo tigrinus Müll. & Henle. Tiger Shark.

Specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained large univalve shells, *Buccinum undatum* and *Lunatia heros*.

One contained a quantity of pork in large pieces, while others had fed upon sea turtle, the common ray, sting-ray, bluefish, dogfish; quantities of feathers and eel-grass were also found in the stomachs of this species. Wood's Holl, 1871. E. Palmer.

Mustelus canis De Kay. Dogfish.

Several specimens caught at Wood's Holl, in August, contained lobsters, *Homarus americanus*; spider-crabs, *Libinia canaliculata*; rock-crabs, *Cancer irroratus*; Tautog (*Tautoga onitis*); and butterfish (*Porichthys triacanthus*). Wood's Holl, 1871. E. Palmer.

Eugomphodus littoralis Gill. Sand Shark.

Many specimens taken at Wood's Holl, in July and August, contained lobsters, *Homarus americanus*, in abundance; *Cancer irroratus*; and squids, *Loligo Pealii*.

Also menhaden, *Brevoortia tyrannus*; eels; and common flounder. E. Palmer, 1871.

Squalus americanus.

Specimens taken in the rivers near Eastport, Me., in 1871, associated with herring, were full of the latter fish. A. E. Verrill, 1871.

A Gephyrean worm is often used for bait by the fishermen on some parts of the coast of Maine. It has not been well described but it is apparently the *Holothuria chrysacanthophora* of Couthouy and the *Echiurus chrysacanthophorus* of Pourtales. It has been generally considered a rare species, and specimens of it are uncommon in museums. At Harpswell the fishermen sometimes dig it in immense quantities. It lives in the mud, just above the low-water mark, and is as readily obtained as clams. It is used in catching several species of fishes, but is specially desirable for hake. Its irregularity of occurrence seems to be the only reason why it should not be more extensively employed.

B.—BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICES OF THE MOST IMPORTANT SPECIES.

As already explained, our knowledge of the habits of the sea-fishes of America is very imperfect for various reasons, chief among which is, of course, their concealment from notice during the greater portion of their existence. We are even far from the knowledge of what species actually occur on our shores; many kinds coming to notice only at rare intervals, or under circumstances when the intelligent observer and naturalist fail to encounter them. Comparatively few species are readily, if ever, taken with the hook, or even the seine, and it is only since the more recent introduction of traps, pounds, and weirs, with their wholesale captures, that a fair idea of the geographical distribution of the sea-fishes along the coast has been attained. Even this apparatus fails to reach the outlying deep-sea species; and the beam-trawl and long-line, while constantly adding to the list, will never in all probability entirely complete it. During the summer of 1877 the parties of the U. S. Fish Commission trawled up at various distances off the coast of Massachusetts several species, some new to science, never before known in American waters, and it is probable that additions will be made continually, without exhausting the list.

It is not a little remarkable that fishermen who are continually in contact with fish throughout the year know actually so little about them. To questions as to the food of the various species, the peculiarities of spawning, the size and character of the eggs, the period of development, the history of the young, &c., a negative answer is usually returned, and it is only occasionally that one more intelligent, or at least more observant, than the rest can be found from whom any satisfactory information can be obtained. It is, however, to be hoped, and indeed to be expected, that the publication of a résumé of our actual knowledge of the habits and peculiarities of our fishes will call their attention to the subject, and secure their assistance in solving the many remaining problems.

As already explained, the facts, or probably it will be safer to call them statements until confirmed, here given are to a considerable degree the result of personal observation of members of the U. S. Fish Commission, supplemented and extended by the answers to questions distributed by the Commission. Personal inquiry of witnesses summoned before the Joint Fisheries Commission held at Halifax from June 15 to December 15, 1877, in addition to the testimony elicited on their examination by the counsel and printed with the other evidence, have also added not a little to the mass of facts. Great care, however, requires to be exercised in admitting the statements made on this occasion, as one witness, apparently honest and claiming to have been a practical fisherman for many years, stated under oath, that the eggs of the mackerel were as large as pease or BB shot, and that they could be hauled up on a hook in large masses.

Not much information is to be found in the various publications hitherto made relative to the fish and fisheries of Eastern North America, although some facts of value are contained in the writings of Gilpin, Perley, Ambrose, Storer, and others.*

C.—RELATIONSHIPS AND SURROUNDINGS.

FISHES CONSIDERED COLLECTIVELY OR BY GROUPS.—Although each species of fish on our coasts may be considered as possessing some peculiar habit or combination of habits by which it is distinguished from its fellows, they may be, for convenience of consideration, divided into groups, all the members of which possess certain common peculiarities, having an important bearing upon the methods and times of their pursuit and capture. These relationships are, to some extent interrupted by the reproductive instinct, which causes them to change their ordinary location and to assume new conditions. They are also affected by the exigencies of feeding, of pursuit by other animals or by man, or by the variations in their physical surroundings.

Deferring to a subsequent part of the chapter any consideration of the migrations and movements of the various species, we may arrange marine fish in certain groups, as follows:

a. *The inshore fish*, or those found within a short distance (sometimes miles) from the shores. These embrace a great variety of species, generally of small size and finding their harbor and shelter among rocks and stones, sea-weeds, eel-grass, &c. They are fish that can be taken from beaches, rocks, and wharves, or small boats from the shore, and furnish more occupation and amusement than actual profit in their capture. They are also among those most frequently taken in weirs, pounds, and fykes. Among them may be mentioned various Cyprinodonts, the cunner, the spearing or friar, the young Clupeids, the sea bass, the tautog, the scup, and many other species of less note.

These fish furnish an important article of food, but obtainable only by considerable effort; and being generally of small size, do not yield a very generous return. Some of the species, as the scup, in former years were, however, in such abundance on the south coast of New England that hundreds of pounds could easily be taken in a short time.

b. *The offshore fish*.—These are species which usually occupy greater depths, and are found at remoter distances from the shore than those first mentioned, being generally found on the banks or elevations in deeper water.

The greater portion of the *Gadidae* or cod family, such as the cod, haddock, hake, &c., belong here; as also the halibut. This group is the most important of our coast-fishes, being usually of large size and occur-

* This section of the report as prepared at Halifax I have concluded to omit until a new digest of our knowledge of the subject can be prepared, so much information having been obtained in reference to the habits of our fishes since 1877 as to render it obsolete.

ring in great numbers, so that a few men, with proper apparatus, can capture a large number of pounds in a day. The salmon and shad may perhaps be included in this group.

c. *Pelagic fish.*—These consist largely of species belonging or allied to the mackerel family, and, next to the group just mentioned, furnish the most important supply of food. The prominent members of this group are the common mackerel, the bluefish, the menhaden, the sword-fish, the bonito, and other kinds. Sometimes members of this group are found hundreds of miles from the land; at others they come close inshore, either in pursuit of food or for purposes of reproduction, when they can be taken from the shores or in nets. They, however, appear to be continually on the move, showing more or less at the surface, remaining in proximity to the shore during the warm season, then disappearing during the winter.

d. *Deep-sea fish.*—This constitutes a group, of which until within a few years very little was known, occasionally being found floating at the surface either dead or dying, or caught at great depth on cod or halibut lines. It is only within a few years, or since the labors of the Challenger and other vessels, provided with apparatus for fishing at great depths, that the number of species has been realized. While some of the fishes belonging to the second section occur not unfrequently at depths of many hundreds of fathoms, such as the cod, halibut, hake, &c., very few of this fourth group are taken in waters of less than 100 fathoms, and thence to 1,000 and even to 2,900 fathoms, by the Challenger. This group is of little economical value, especially on account of their small size and apparently scant numbers, even apart from the practical difficulty of their capture, although it is not at all impossible that there may be edible species sufficiently large and abundant to be worth pursuing if they were more within reach.

The status of fish in the sea is very largely determined by the question of temperature. This, however, will be considered more definitely under the next head of the migrations and movements of fish as influenced by various causes.

MIGRATIONS AND MOVEMENTS.

The human race is more concerned in the movements and migrations of fish than in the question of their permanent abode. It is when they are aggregated in large bodies, and moving from place to place, either under the stimulus of search for food or other causes, that they furnish the best opportunity to man for their capture and utilization.

Little is known of the salmon, the shad, the herring, the menhaden, the mackerel, and the bluefish during a large portion of the year; but at certain periods these species collect in large bodies, and by a change of place come within the reach of their relentless pursuer—man. On the other hand, the *Gadidae*, the cod, especially, and the halibut, are within reach throughout the greater part of the year, either on the offshore banks while feeding or inshore when spawning.

The movements and migrations of fish are of two classes; the one irregular and occasional, the other regular. The irregular migrations are such as occur only at long intervals, sometimes altering very materially the industrial and social conditions of maritime countries.

Among the most notable illustrations of irregular migrations, we may cite the case of the bluefish, which during the past century was a well-known inhabitant of the eastern coast of the United States, occurring in great abundance and of large size. This species appears regularly on our eastern coast in the spring and leaves in autumn; but some time after the middle of the last century it disappeared entirely, according to the histories of the time, and was not seen during the present century until much of it had passed by, having been absent for a period of about fifty years. Of course it is possible that it may have occurred in small numbers, but not sufficient to make any impression; at any rate, on its reappearance in 1825 or 1830 it was entirely new to all the fishermen.

Another case is that of the club mackerel (*Scomber pneumatophorus*). This, twenty years ago, was extremely abundant and was taken in large numbers at the same time with the common mackerel; but of which in later years only occasionally individuals have been captured. I have succeeded in securing only one or two specimens since the commencement of the operations of the United States Fish Commission, although every effort has been made to obtain them.

A European member of the mackerel family is extremely capricious in its movements. It is the *Caranx trachurus*, or the sead, a well-known fish of the Mediterranean and of the European coast generally. This sometimes sweeps down in immense numbers upon the shores of regions where it was previously unknown, or where it has not been seen for many years; a notable instance of this occurring in 1862, when immense numbers made their appearance on the coast of Bergen and in the Shrange Fiord, furnishing occupation in their capture and preparation to a large population; but scarcely was it at all known except in straggling specimens before or since.*

The causes of these variations in distribution are entirely unknown; whether the fish have been exterminated by some disease or pestilence (as suggested in the case of the bluefish), &c., cannot be ascertained. Various changes in the number of herring on the coast of Northern Europe have been of a similar character. These have been more especially important as influencing the condition of the population of Norway and Sweden and other northern countries. On the coast of Sweden herring were formerly in enormous abundance, sustaining a large population along the shores, but have disappeared for decades. It is with the regular migrations of the fishes of our coast that we have at present most to do, and I shall proceed to consider them under several headings.

* Baars, Des Fischerein Industrie de la Norw ge, 1873; p. 158.

The regular migrations of fishes are for the most part dependent, 1st, on the instinct of reproduction which causes them to seek grounds and regions more suitable to the purpose, especially so far as relates to a safe abode for the young during the earlier months of their life; 2d, the search for food; 3d, the influence of temperature, a most potent factor. A fourth agency is the pursuit of predaceous fishes, although this is generally much more restricted in its operations than the others. The pursuit of fish by man has doubtless some effect, but this is exhibited more in a reduction of numbers by actual destruction of parent fish or their eggs and young than by causing a definite change of place.

I have already grouped the marine fishes provisionally according to their relations to the shores and sea-bottom. Their migrations involve a temporary change in their relations, offshore fish coming in to the coast or even ascending rivers. We may, however, arrange fish by the migrations and movements into the following groups:

(1) *Anadromous fish*.—Species passing most of their time in the ocean, and when mature entering and ascending fresh-water rivers and lakes for the purpose of depositing their eggs; the young fish remaining for more or less time, and then descending to the ocean and there attaining their full growth, probably not going very far from the mouth of the river which they thus descend. The more important species in this connection are as follows:

The Sturgeon (in part).	The Tailor Shad.
The Salmon.	The Gizzard Shad (?).
The Smelt.	The Striped Bass (in part).
The Shad.	Various species of Cyprinidæ.
The Alewife.	The Lamprey Eel.

A somewhat similar condition occurs entirely in fresh-water, where certain species which spend most of their time in larger or smaller lakes pass at the breeding season into the streams emptying therein, to lay their eggs on the gravelly ripples. This is the case with nearly all the *Coregoni* or whitefish, the landlocked salmon, and smelt, the *Salmo ochotensis*, or Rangeley trout, the brook trout, &c. Whether the fish ever descend into an outlet is an interesting problem.

Among the fish of this group we find species of great economical value, embracing as it does some of the finest table-fish, and sometimes in overwhelming abundance. They appear with great regularity in the mouths of rivers, ascending them to their very source, or at least until stopped by some impassable obstruction. They present a great advantage over the sea fishes so far as man is concerned, in the greater facility of capture. This pursuit is prosecuted with little comparative risk and exposure, while any one with a line, or a net of simplest construction, and a small boat, or even from the shore, can secure an abundant supply of food.

It is among the anadromous fishes that man in a savage or semi-civilized state finds his most copious supply of food, depending sometimes almost entirely upon it for subsistence through the year, eating it fresh during the run and dried or smoked the rest of the time.

The most prominent fishes under this head belong more especially to groups of the salmon, the herring, the shad, and the sturgeon. It is in the temperate regions of the northern hemisphere, so far as I am aware, that the anadromous habit is seen in its grand development.

No better illustration of the numbers in which anadromous fish enter the rivers can be given and the extent of diminution of the supply from various causes, hereafter to be referred to, than a presentation of the case as it relates to the Potomac River in the short distance between its mouth and the Great Falls of the Potomac, only twelve miles above Washington. Although this stretch of water is even now very productive, and annually becoming more and more so, as the result of careful propagation, many years will elapse, if ever, before it gets up to the measure of yield mentioned by Martin in his History of Virginia,* a work published in 1835. It is proper to say that some old fishermen along the river deny the accuracy of his statements in their detail, but admit that the numbers taken were enormously in excess of the present yield. I give, however, the statement, allowing it to speak for itself:

"As Alexandria is the shipping port of the District of Columbia, and one of the principal marts for the immense fisheries of the Potomac, it may be well to mention that in the spring of the year quantities of shad and herrings are taken which may appear almost incredible. The number of shad frequently obtained at a haul is 4,000 and upwards, and of herrings from 100,000 to 300,000. In the spring of 1832 there were taken in one seine at one draught a few more than 950,000 accurately counted. The prosecution of the numerous fisheries gives employment to a large number of laborers, and affords an opportunity to the poor to lay in, at very reduced prices, food enough to last their families during the whole year. The shad and herrings of the Potomac are transported by land to all parts of the country to which there is a convenient access from the river, and they are also shipped to various ports in the United States and West Indies. The lowest prices at which these fish sell when just taken are 25 cents per thousand for herrings and \$1.50 per hundred for shad, but they generally bring higher prices, often \$1.50 per thousand for the former and from \$3 to \$4 per hundred for

* A new and comprehensive gazetteer of Virginia and the District of Columbia, containing a copious collection of geographical, statistical, political, commercial, religious, moral, and miscellaneous information, collected and compiled from the most respectable and chiefly from original sources, by Joseph Martin. To which is added a history of Virginia from its first settlement to the year 1754; with an abstract of the principal events from that period to the independence of Virginia, written expressly for the work by a citizen of Virginia. Charlottesville, published by Joseph Martin. Moseley & Tompkins, printers, 1835, page 480.

the latter; in the height of the season a single shad weighing from 6 to 8 pounds is sold in the market of the District for 6 cents. Herrings, however, are sometimes taken so plentifully that they are given away or hauled on the land as manure for want of purchasers." Some idea may be formed of the importance of these fisheries from the following statement:

Number of fisheries on the Potomac, about	150
Number of laborers required at the landings	6,500
Number of vessels employed	450
Number of men to navigate these vessels	1,350
Number of shad taken in good season, which lasts only about six weeks.	22,500,000
Number of herrings under similar circumstances	750,000,000
Quauntity of salt required to cure the fish	bushels.. 995,000
Number of barrels to contain the fish	995,000

In further illustration of the former extent of the fresh-water fisheries of the Potomac River, I give an extract from Burnaby's Travels in North America, referring more particularly to the sturgeon, although incidentally to the shad and herring.* At the present day the yield of these fisheries has decreased enormously, although enough are left to encourage the hope of a great improvement whenever the proper means for protection and the artificial propagation of fish are entered upon.

In the year 1873 the shad, herring, and bunch fish caught in the Potomac and sold in the Washington market amounted to 8,541,851 pounds; in 1874 the total sales at Alexandria, Washington, and Georgetown, from the same river, amounted to about 16,122,533 pounds, a by no means indifferent presentation.

(2) *Catadromous fish*.—Species of fish which are born in the sea, ascend the rivers and reach their maturity in two to four years, and then, when mature, descend to the ocean to spawn, and possibly never leave it again.

The Eel is the only species to which we can at present assign this peculiar habit.

(3) *Inshore fishes*, more especially fishes found inshore during the summer season, coming in apparently to breed. They are more or less closely related to the bottom, seldom or never schooling at the

*In the first report of the U. S. Fish Commission I have given numerous quotations from early authors in reference to the abundance of various fishes in the rivers and along the coast of the United States. Burnaby (Travels through the middle settlements of North America in the years 1759 and 1760, London, 1775), in speaking of the Potomac River, remarks as follows (on page 9): "These waters are stored with incredible quantities of fish, such as sheepsheads, rock-fish, drums, white-peache, herrings, oysters, crabs, and several other sorts. Sturgeon and shad are in such prodigious numbers that one day, within the space of two (2) miles only, some gentlemen in canoes caught above 600 of the former with hooks which they let down to the bottom and drew up at a venture when they perceived them to rub against a fish; and of the latter, above 5,000 have been caught at one single haul of the seine." It is probable that the seines used in the Potomac waters over a hundred years ago were much smaller than those now employed, one of one hundred yards being, doubtless, of remarkable magnitude.

surface, and are generally most abundant within a few miles of the shore. These include a great variety of fishes on the American coast, confined for the most part to the United States and the region south of Cape Cod, which do not enter fresh waters, but are found, during the summer season at least, and are most abundant near the shore or on particular spots not far distant.

So far as we at present know, our information, however, being extremely imperfect, they come in regularly from the deep waters of the ocean, probably from the western edge of the Gulf Stream, in the spring of the year to spawn, remaining until fall. A few, as cunner and tautog, can be found at almost all seasons of the year. The rest, however, retrace their steps to spend the winters in the warmer depths outside, probably along the edges of the Gulf Stream.

The principal fish of this group are as follows:

Series 1.

The Scup or Porgy,
The Squeteague or Weakfish,
The Sea Bass,
The Sea Robin (*Prionotus*),
The Tautog,
The Cunner,
Certain flat-fish,
The Dogfish and other Sharks.

Series 2.

The Sheepshead,
The Lafayette,
The Drum,
The Whiting,
The Kingfish,
The Red Snapper,
The Red Bass,
The Pompano,
The Mullet.

Of these the members of Series 1 are known to come in immense schools in the early spring on the south coast of New England, and are taken extensively in traps, pounds, and wiers. The movements of Series 2 are less well defined. They make their appearance on the coast in gradually increasing quantity, although farther south they are found in moderate numbers throughout the whole year.

There are two dogfish taken, one, the spinous dog (*Acanthias americanus*), coming first in enormous numbers, the livers furnishing a large supply of oil; the other, the smooth dog, succeeding it in smaller numbers. The spinous dog scarcely belongs to this section, as it does not remain inshore during the summer south of Cape Cod, although abundant north of it. It might be placed with the pelagic fishes but for not showing at the surface. It, however, appears more in enormous schools along the coast during spring and fall, and is very obnoxious to the fishermen, as all fishing becomes unproductive whenever the dogfish make their appearance.

An analogous movement is seen in certain fishes of the Great Lakes, as the salmon or lake trout, whitefish, &c., which, while residing for the greater part of the year in the deep waters where they are more or less undisturbed, during the spawning season (in the autumn) come inshore, especially the whitefish, and are taken in immense numbers by

the traps and pounds. The white fish exhibit a very decided tendency to enter the mouths of rivers on this occasion, especially in Lake Superior and Hudson Bay. Detroit River is an especially favorite spawning-ground. Indeed, the whitefish might with eminent propriety be classed among the anadromous fish of the fresh waters, like the landlocked salmon, the blue-back trout of Rangeley Lake, &c. The spawning along the shores of lakes at all may be due to their being barred out from the rivers by artificial or other obstructions.

We may possibly place in this schedule the Capelin (*Mallotus villosus*), which is exclusively northern, and the Tomecod, although the latter sometimes enters fresh water to spawn, and may almost be entitled to a position in the first division, perhaps near the smelt.

(4) *Offshore fish*.—Not schooling at the surface; usually spawning in the deep seas, for the most part during the late autumn or winter, though generally resorting to rocks and banks, and sometimes near the shore for the purpose; never swimming at the surface, and their presence only to be determined by actual capture. During the winter they range considerably farther south than in summer. Of these may be mentioned the cod, the hake, the haddock, and most other *Gadidae* except the pollock. The pollock, belonging to the cod family, is more of a surface fish, and is very often seen swimming or schooling near the top of the water. In some respects the halibut belongs in this division.

(5) *Pelagic or wandering fish*.—Usually surface swimmers, and for the most part regular migrants in large bands or schools from north to south in autumn and from south to north in spring; not at all regular, however, in their movements, and sometimes, for one cause or another, disappearing gradually or suddenly from a certain region, not to return again until the lapse of many years. Some, as the herring, the blue-fish, and the menhaden, are autumn and winter spawners; the others lay their eggs, as far as we know, in summer or spring. It is among the fish of this group that we find, with the exception of the *Gadidae*, the most important of all the sea fish in the entire northern hemisphere, whether we consider the number of fish taken, their excellence and high price, or the amount of capital and number of hands employed in their capture. They belong almost exclusively to the *Clupeidae* (the herring family) or to the *Scombridae* (the mackerel family). Two species of the former group, the shad and the alewife, have been fully considered under the first head, while no species of the second family belong elsewhere. The principal species are the following:

The Sea Herring.	The Cero.
The Menhaden or Pogy.	The Bonito.
The Common Mackerel.	The Tunny or Horse Mackerel.
The Chub Mackerel.	The Swordfish.
The Spanish Mackerel.	The Bluefish.

(6) *Deep-sea fish*.—We have already referred to this group under the head of relationships. How far they can be considered as migrants is

to be ascertained. It is probable that they change their locations but seldom, living as they do at great depth, where the prevailing low temperature (30° to perhaps 45°) is thought to vary but little.

Until within a few years little has been known of this group, the researches of the Challenger having been principally instrumental in showing its extent, variety, and the remarkable peculiarities of its different members. Many species have also been revealed to us by the contributions of the Gloucester fishermen to the U. S. Fish Commission.

Probably the only important factor in influencing the change of situation in this group of fishes is the search for food or the pursuit by fellow fish, cephalopods, &c.

In addition to the regular, periodical, or occasional movements of fish just referred to, there are cases in which the change of location is not so easily explained. Among these may be mentioned the selection of a fresh-water abode by species which are generally exclusively marine, and *vice versa*. Of course, the change in anadromous fishes is intelligible; but why such fishes as the sawfish, shark (*Pristis*), the sting-ray, and quite a number of other kinds should live and apparently thrive in fresh water, is not so easily understood. Other species are found up rivers to a considerable distance from their mouths beyond the brackish portion.

HIBERNATION.—Another subject which may be considered in connection with that of migration and movements is that of hibernation.

Many fresh-water fishes, such as carp and others, are known to bury themselves in the mud, either partially or entirely, during the cold weather, and to remain there until the warm season of the year. This is also the case to a greater or less extent with the eels, both in fresh water and on the coast. To what extent other kinds of strictly marine fish exhibit the same habit is at present difficult to determine. The disappearance from our coast during the winter season of the mackerel, menhaden, and some other species has given rise to the belief by some that they bury themselves in the mud at suitable places off the coast. Indeed, there are not wanting statements to the effect that mackerel have been speared in the mud by persons who were attempting to capture eels in this well-known method. Some of these instances appear to be fairly well substantiated; but whether they represent anything like a permanent condition it is now difficult to say. Those who believe in the hibernation of mackerel point to the existence of a film over the eye on the first appearance of this fish in the spring, which they suppose to be the result of the long exclusion of light or of contact with the mud, this film going away in the course of the summer.

The sturgeon is believed to be a hibernating fish to some extent.

Having thus considered the better marked movements of fishes under their different heads, I now propose briefly to consider the causes of such movements so far as we can understand them.

PHYSICAL CAUSES.—The more regular changes of position with the

seasons are caused by the reproductive instinct, by conditions of temperature, and by search for food. They are also to a less degree affected by the pursuit of predaceous fish and other fellow occupants of the ocean and by the action of man.

Temperature of the water.—The most important of these agencies is probably that of temperature; since while there are certain species that appear to be quite insensible to considerable variations in this respect, the distribution of others is largely dependent upon the degree of heat in the water. Certain fishes, such as the cod and herring, are to be taken only in cold water, the herring usually at a temperature not exceeding 50° to 55° ; the cod at a still lower degree. This relationship has an important bearing upon the herring fisheries; since, when the heat of the surface water is above the degree indicated, herring are seldom seen; as this decreases they make their appearance. This is so well established that now the herring fishery on the coast of Scotland is largely regulated by the temperature observed, and when it is decidedly above 55° the herring are not looked for.

On the coast of the United States there are two well-defined regions, one bounded to the south by Cape Cod and the other having this boundary as its northeastern limit. A few stragglers may be found occasionally on either side; but practically the cape constitutes the boundary line.

As a general rule the winter temperature of the ocean at different points along the New England coast is about the same, the surface water as well as that at the bottom showing the minimum degree down to absolute freezing. During this season, therefore, all the more delicate fish leave either to go south or off the shore until they find the temperature they require; possibly, however, not until they reach the edge of the Gulf Stream. The summer temperatures, however, vary extremely, and these variations are accompanied by the presence or absence of fish of different kinds. On the south side of New England the warmest temperatures observed were in Peconic Bay, where, in August, 1874, the bottom temperature was from 71° to $72\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, the surface temperature in one instance being as high as 74° . Here the same southern types of marine animals were predominant.

At Wood's Holl, in 1873, the mean temperature at the bottom in June was 61.7° , and in July 69.5° , and in August 70° , or an average of 67° . The surface was sometimes a few degrees higher.

Elsewhere on the south side of New England the bottom temperature ranged from 61° to 65° off the coast of Connecticut, in from 4 to 20 fathoms; in rather deeper water from 58.5° to 64° . Off Cox's Ledge it was 50° at 52 fathoms in August, and off several miles northwest of Block Island it was 45.5° at 47 fathoms, this being accompanied by a somewhat different fauna. In general, we may say that south of Cape Cod, while the inshore surface of the water during midsummer ranges from 62° to 70° , at a greater distance outward, up to perhaps fifteen or twenty miles, it ranges from 62° to 68° , and that at the bottom, inside

the northern current that sweeps around the outside of Cape Cod and No Man's Land and into Fisher's Sound, the temperature inshore ranges from 61° to 70° ; more offshore, it ranges from 60° to 64° . But in the colder water about Cox's Ledge and off Block Island and in certain parts of Fisher's Sound, it ranges from 45° to about 50° .

At Portland there is quite a different condition. The maximum temperature was observed inside of Casco Bay, where the range was from 57° to 65° , and outside from 50° to 59° . The bottom temperatures during the summer inshore were from 54° to 56° , and in the deeper waters of Casco Bay from 45° to 49° . Farther east and in the Bay of Fundy still lower degrees are shown.

The following table of temperatures actually observed along the coast at different times of year will be of interest. It is compiled from observations made by the U. S. Signal Service as a matter of special co-operation with the work of the U. S. Fish Commission.

Absolute highest and lowest temperature of water at the bottom at 3 p. m. during the year ending February 28, 1877.

Place of observation.	Spring.				Summer.			
	Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.	
	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.
Indianola, Tex.	Apr. 23	78.0	Mar. 21	57.0				
Galveston, Tex.	Apr. 30	79.0	Apr. 2	62.0				
Mobile, Ala.	May 4	68.0	Mar. 22	54.0	July 20	88.0	June 10	79.0
Punta Rassa, Fla.	May 22	87.0	Mar. 21	67.0	July 17	93.0	July 31	79.5
Key West, Fla.	May 3	84.8	May 24	57.0	June 24	90.0	Aug. 22	76.6
Jacksonville, Fla.	May 22	84.0	Mar. 21	62.0	July 14	90.0	June 12	81.0
Savannah, Ga.	May 30	73.0	Mar. 22	53.0	Aug. 20	86.0	June 15	69.0
Charleston, S. C.	May 30	77.0	Mar. 22	54.0	Aug. 20	88.0	June 15	75.5
Wilmington, N. C.	May 29	76.0	Mar. 3	51.0	July 19	87.0	June 10	74.0
Norfolk, Va.	May 30	73.5	Mar. 4	44.0			Aug. 27	70.0
Baltimore, Md.	May 28	71.0	Mar. 3	38.0	July 11	86.0	June 1	72.0
New York, N. Y.	May 29	58.0	Mar. 1	32.0	July 20	75.0	June 1	55.0
New London, Conn.	May 30	57.0	Mar. 2	34.5	Aug. 13	76.0	June 1	54.0
Wood's Holl, Mass.	May 28	57.0	Mar. 1	30.0	July 6	76.0	June 1	58.0
Portland, Me.	May 30	50.0	Mar. 1	31.5	Aug. 15	64.0	June 6	49.5
Eastport, Me.	May 31	40.5	Mar. 18	31.0	Aug. 15	51.0	June 9	40.0

Place of observation.	Autumn.				Winter.			
	Highest.		Lowest.		Highest.		Lowest.	
	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.	Date.	Temp.
Indianola, Tex.								
Galveston, Tex.								
Mobile, Ala.	Sept. 5	88.0	Nov. 1	57.0	Dec. 1	55.0	Jan. 9	40.0
Punta Rassa, Fla.	Sept. 2	91.5	Nov. 26	68.0	Jan. 23	76.5	Dec. 5	52.5
Key West, Fla.	Sept. 1	89.0	Nov. 11	65.0	Dec. 24	84.0	Dec. 6	45.0
Jacksonville, Fla.	Sept. 2	89.0	Nov. 11	64.0	Jan. 29	64.0	Dec. 7	45.0
Savannah, Ga.	Sept. 2	87.0	Nov. 27	52.0	Jan. 21	58.0	Jan. 5	37.0
Charleston, S. C.	Sept. 3	84.0	Nov. 26	55.0	Feb. 3	55.0	Jan. 1	42.5
Wilmington, N. C.	Sept. 1	83.0	Nov. 29	51.0	Jan. 22	51.0	Jan. 4	35.0
Norfolk, Va.	Sept. 1	80.0	Nov. 29	46.5	Dec. 1	45.0		
Baltimore, Md.	Sept. 1	78.0	Nov. 30	45.0	Dec. 1	45.0		
New York, N. Y.	Sept. 1	72.0	Nov. 30	39.0	Dec. 1	38.0		
New London, Conn.	Sept. 1	72.0	Nov. 30	46.5	Dec. 1	45.0	Jan. 6	33.5
Wood's Holl, Mass.	Sept. 1	70.0	Nov. 30	39.0	Dec. 1	38.0	Jan. 1	29.0
Portland, Me.	Sept. 2	58.0	Nov. 26	41.0	Dec. 6	42.0	Jan. 16	29.0
Eastport, Me.	Sept. 29	51.5	Nov. 26	43.5	Dec. 1	43.5	Dec. 26	27.0

The capture during the summer and autumn of fishes of the southern coast as far east as Long Island Sound, Vineyard Sound, and Buzzard's Bay, is not a matter of surprise.

The influence of temperature upon the movements of fishes, as already stated, is seen both in different parts of the coast and at different altitudes in the same region.

Oceanic currents also have more or less influence upon the distribution of fishes. This, however, depends more upon the pursuit by them of the less independent algae, jelly-fish, crustaceans, ascidians, &c., that float hither and thither with the tide.

The apparent clearness of the water is also a factor in this consideration, various species preferring one extreme or the other, and coming inshore or near the surface with this variation.

The temperature of the atmosphere probably influences the movements of fish only so far as it affects the temperature of the water itself, the surface strata being, of course, heated or cooled very readily with variation of the air in this respect. The clearness of the sky and the consequent amount of light has a very decided influence on some fishes, especially the pelagic species, invertebrates too being affected in a similar manner. A bright sunny day will frequently call up forms that are never seen at any other time, while others again only approach the surface on cloudy days or even in the night exclusively. The action of the winds of the ocean is also to be considered in this connection, although possibly more is due to local currents as affecting the water than anything else. It is not impossible that variation in temperature may have great influence upon some fishes provided with air-bladders, by which the depth of immersion can be conveniently graduated.

In what way the influence of aerial currents or winds are felt by fish is difficult to say. Von Frieden, however, as the result of a comparison between the actual catches of herring by the German fishermen and the records of the corresponding days and hours, has come to the conclusion (*Circulaire des Deutschen Fischerei-Vereins*, 1874, p. 200) that the best results always followed with the wind from the northwest, and that generally northern winds were better than southern, and western better than eastern.

THE REPRODUCTIVE INSTINCT.—It is under the stimulus of the reproductive instinct that many of the more notable movements of fish take place, although by what prescience they are enabled to understand that the interests of their progeny require a change of abode, and especially from salt water to fresh, it is, of course, impossible to explain. The anadromous movements, or the ascent of rivers by salmon, shad, and fresh-water herring, &c., all in countless myriads, and with almost unerring regularity, are notable examples. It was formerly supposed that these fish moved in great bodies along our coast, sending off detachments into the mouths of the rivers as they went by. The more rational hypothesis now is that they live in the deeper waters of the sea

in nearly the same latitude as the mouths of the rivers in which they were born, and return to them at the proper season. The young remain in the fresh water for a time, the period varying with the species, after which they also follow their parents in their return to the sea.

The movements of what we had previously designated as inshore and pelagic fish are also largely connected with the same reproductive instinct, and even the fishes of the Banks illustrate it to a greater or less degree.

SEARCH FOR FOOD.—Next, perhaps, to the influence of reproduction comes the search for food as influencing the migration and movements of fishes, certain species of fishes following up particular forms of other fishes, the attempts of which to escape fall under the same category; or of the lower animals, as they are carried almost unresistingly by winds and currents in various directions. A notable illustration of this is seen in the herring.

Professor Möbius, in investigating the food of the herring in the German seas, found that a certain copepod shrimp, one of the *Entomostraca* (*Temora longicornis*), was more eagerly sought after than anything else; this being so minute, however, that 18,000 were taken from the stomach of one herring and 60,000 from that of another.*

Professor Möbius thinks that the comb-like fringes attached to the gills of the herring serve as tangles in capturing these shrimps, precisely as do the similar apparatus of the basking shark and the whale-bone of the whale. These specimens were obtained in February of 1872, when both the shrimp and the herring were in exceptional abundance; and he subsequently observes that the same relations were found continually, the abundance of the herring being in strict proportion to that of the shrimp.†

The chain of connection does not cease in the relation between the *Temora* or shrimp and the herring. A great variety of sea birds, gulls, gannets, &c., follow up the herring, as also numerous mackerel, tunnies, blackfish, swordfish, and even whales and porpoises, which devour the herring in countless numbers. The movements of the capelin in the North Atlantic influence very largely those of the cod and other species, as when the former come into the shores of Newfoundland and elsewhere in immense numbers to deposit their eggs on the beach, the cod, &c., follow, and are then captured within a very short distance of the shore.

DRIVEN BY ENEMIES.—A notable instance of these relationships is seen in the menhaden and the bluefish. The menhaden, in its movements along the coast, is very frequently accompanied by vast schools of bluefish, which, as already explained in a previous report, probably destroy more menhaden in a day than are taken by man in a whole sea-

* Circulaire des Deutschen Fischerei-Vereins, 1873, p. 112.

† Circulaire des Deutschen Fischerei-Vereins, 1874, p. 90.

son's fishing. This is not unfrequently illustrated in the driving ashore of the menhaden by the bluefish in immense masses, while the bluefish themselves in their ardent pursuit are stranded at the same time. A similar pursuit of the mackerel by the bluefish is often noticed. The bluefish themselves are, by an act of retributive justice, pursued and driven ashore by schools of porpoises and horse-mackerel or tunnies.

HUMAN AGENCIES.—The influence exerted by man in determining the abundance or the movements of fishes, apart from their actual capture, is manifested in various ways, although more particularly in the case of the anadromous fishes than any other. Whenever any impassable obstruction is laid across a river, ascended by anadromous species, as shad, salmon, &c., for the purpose of reproduction, the exclusion from their breeding grounds has very soon a marked effect. Usually, for the first two or three years not much difference is appreciable, as these species require three or four years to mature after passing down the river before they return to their starting point. There will therefore be three years of successive returns of schools, and after that there will be no young fish to keep up the supply, which will be confined to the older individuals returning in the vain attempt to find spawning beds. At the expiration of six or eight years the supply will probably cease entirely, and there will be no further run in the river. In this event the remedy is the removal of the obstructions by taking down the dams or barriers, or introducing a fishway, and planting the young fish above the former obstruction; at the end of three or four years the mature individuals will make their appearance again.

Nets constitute an obstruction of less moment than dams, since they are of temporary application and constantly liable to be torn or destroyed by the elements, or removed by legal enactments.

The disappearance of fishes to a greater or less degree from certain localities has frequently been ascribed to such agencies as the sound from the paddles of steamboats, the firing of cannon, &c. How far this is of any moment remains to be seen. A variation in abundance of fish is not unfrequently caused indirectly by man in destroying or fostering predaceous species. It has not unfrequently happened that one species of fish has greatly multiplied in consequence of the capture by man of some special enemy. There is no doubt whatever that the number of bluefish caught during the summer season for market purposes permits a vast increase in the number of menhaden, scup, sea bass, and other fishes which would otherwise be devoured.

Many such cases could readily be adduced, and suggest extreme caution in the adoption of measures for protecting certain fishes from natural enemies, without a careful inquiry as to the possibility of indirect results not anticipated. A noticeable instance has been furnished by Mr. Whitcher, the distinguished commissioner of fish and fisheries of the Dominion of Canada.

He states that the *Beluga*, or white whale, is a great consumer of fish of all kinds, but is especially destructive to the salmon and cod of the Lower Saint Lawrence, the former particularly. Some distance up the Saguenay River, where the salmon were supposed to have been much injured by the *Beluga*, a license was taken out in 1872 for their capture, and in 1873 a large number (some sixty) were secured at one haul. In this way a very great diminution was effected.*

These have in turn reacted upon the fisheries, since the sharks, which had been kept down in point of numbers by the belugas, multiplied, or at least came in such numbers as, in their turn, to affect very seriously the fisheries, the fish being greatly diminished and those captured showing marks of laceration by the teeth of their new enemies. The increased abundance of the sharks was also shown by the much larger number of them captured in the nets.

Another statement of Mr. Whitcher still further illustrates the relation between the white whales and the salmon. It is well known that within a few years the salmon fisheries within the Dominion of Canada have been very greatly increased by the enforcement of legislation for the protection of fish during their spawning season, and for the increase of the supply by artificial propagation.

Another illustration of the same character, as also furnished by Mr. Whitcher, is to be found in the Bay of Chaleur. In former years the streams emptying into this bay abounded in salmon, but presented the usual appearance of salmon rivers in a marked decrease in numbers by overfishing and other agencies, and this continued for a period of a number of years. More recently, however, as a result of the wise legislation on the part of the Canadian Government of protection during spawning season, and the measures of artificial propagation, the fish are again found in very great abundance. For twenty years the white whales were not known in the Bay of Chaleur, or only by stragglers, but latterly they have returned in large numbers. The first year of their occurrence they came after the salmon had entered the bay and drove them into the shores, where they were taken in very large numbers by the traps and nets that had got a small capture in the lower parts of the rivers. The next year the belugas, or porpoises, came early in the season, before the salmon, and apparently awaited their arrival. They committed great havoc among them and cut them off apparently from the immediate shores.

*According to the report of the British Fishery Commission, p. xliv, at one time in consequence of the apparent diminution in the abundance of fish in Loch Fyne, one of the best known herring fisheries in Scotland, what was then considered a very destructive mode of fishing, by the circle-net, was interdicted for a number of years. It was found, however, that this had not produced the effect supposed, as the decrease of the fish continued for a time, and after the circle-net fishing was restored the fish again became as abundant as ever.

D.—NUMBERS AND ABUNDANCE OF FISH.

That fish of many varieties have decreased greatly in abundance within the historic period in all parts of the world is well established, the reduction in some cases being truly enormous. This, however, applies only to certain varieties, especially of the anadromous fish, or those running up the rivers from the sea to spawn, and to the more inshore forms. The most indubitable cases of diminution are those of the shad, fresh-water herring, salmon, and striped bass. On the other hand, there is no reason to suppose that the cod, mackerel, bluefish, and the sea herring have been reduced essentially, if at all, in numbers, the stock of these fishes being from year to year about the same, and an apparent diminution in one region being balanced by a greater supply in another.

In previous pages of this article, in illustrating another subject, I have referred to the difference in the numbers of shad and herring in the Potomac at the present time and in the past, an experience which is shared to a greater or less extent by all the rivers of the Atlantic coast. Many streams which formerly furnished a vast quantity of food, within easy reach, have now become entirely unproductive, so that it is only by a combination of measures of artificial propagation in the rivers and judicious legislative enactments that anything like the earlier experience can ever be again realized.

The causes of this variation in abundance, so far as they can be detected, may be considered under two heads: first, the natural, or uncontrollable; and, second, the artificial, or those connected with the interference of man. Where the former alone are responsible there may be a hope of a return to original abundance; man's influence acts persistently and with increasing effect throughout long continued years.

There are two classes of natural causes of variation: first, those induced by physical conditions; and, secondly, the dependence of the fish upon, or the relations of fishes to, their fellow-inhabitants of the sea. The action of man is either direct or indirect. The direct agencies are those of overfishing and the pollution of the water. The indirect consist of the obstructions to the movements of the fish, the disturbance of the balance of nature, by unduly fostering or destroying certain classes of animals, and by breaking up the schools of fishes during a critical period, and preventing their spawning.

We have already considered under the heads of migrations and movements of fishes the subject of variations in abundance, depending upon migration, or change of place, where, although the fish may be scarce in one locality, they are proportionally more abundant in another, the actual number in the sea remaining the same. At present we are considering the subject of diminution in actual number of fish. It will be more convenient to consider this subject of variations in the abundance of marine fishes under the next head, of dangers and fatalities, where I propose to go into more details.

E.—THEIR DANGERS AND FATALITIES.

A general account of the fisheries of the North Atlantic coast of the United States is not to be completed without some mention of the agencies by which they are affected and reduced in abundance other than as the result of age. The variety of such influences is very great; perhaps more than in the case of the terrestrial vertebrates, and comparable only to the affections and influences upon insects, which, like the fishes, occur in overwhelming abundance at one time to be more than decimated at another.

We may consider the subject of the dangers and fatalities under three heads: first, those brought about by their fellow-inhabitants of the sea; second, by man; and, third, by natural or physical causes and changes.

1. FROM OTHER FORMS OF MARINE LIFE.

The injuries caused by their fellow-inhabitants are twofold in their action: first, upon the eggs and embryonic fish, and second, upon the more fully grown fish. The destruction of the eggs of fishes is something truly enormous, the percentage of the yield of even the youngest fish from a given number of eggs being extremely small. It has been calculated, in the case of the salmon or shad, that not five eggs out of one thousand produce young fish, able to commence feeding, all the rest being destroyed in one way or another. It is quite likely that even this ratio is too large. A part of this loss of eggs is due, however, to imperfect fertilization, and it is here that artificial propagation has the advantage in securing the contact of the milt with all the ripe eggs, leaving an insignificant fraction not fertilized. Probably not half, and sometimes even much less than half, the eggs discharged experience the same fortune in natural spawning. It would seem as if the immense disproportion of eggs to the resulting fish was an intentional provision in nature, to furnish food to the small inhabitants of the sea, especially to the young fish themselves, of various species, no other bait being so attractive to fish, even to those that have just laid the very eggs used for this purpose. The size of the eggs varies very greatly with the species, as will be seen in a subsequent chapter, some being adapted to the smallest mouth, others requiring one of considerable capacity to take them in. There is almost no season of the year when fish eggs cannot be found in the water, either floating free or else adherent to some object, and the work of devouring them is carried on continually. Of course it is only the smaller fishes that pick up the small eggs; but the former, in turn, contribute to some of larger size, and those to larger again, until finally, in the sequence, the largest inhabitants of the sea obtain their proper food.

It is among the aquatic mammals that we find the most powerful destroyers of fish, these requiring a much larger amount in proportion

to sustain life, as they feed not merely for subsistence but for material to keep up the animal heat.

The cetaceans of various species are, of course, the most destructive by their much greater bulk, the larger of the porpoises being most notable in this respect. It is not unfrequently with feelings of satisfaction that the human spectator observes schools of bluefish that have devoured and driven on shore schools of mackerel and menhaden, themselves attacked and subjected to a similar treatment by troops of porpoises, forming a line outside of them and devouring them with extraordinary rapidity, frequently forcing them on the beach in large numbers. Whales, too, take their part in this conflict, but probably confine themselves to smaller fishes, especially the herring, and possibly mackerel, capelin, or other species, of which large numbers, while schooling can be taken at a gulp.

The method of feeding of the whale is, of course, only appreciable when the operation is conducted at the surface. Here they may be often seen (the finback whales especially), with the mouth wide open and swimming with great velocity against large bodies of herring and floating invertebrates, such as pteropods, jelly-fishes, &c. The greater the development of whalebone in the mouth, the less do the whales apparently feed on fish and the more on invertebrates. The finback is characterized by the small amount of whalebone. To what extent the sperm whale, which is essentially a large porpoise, feeds upon fish is not known; its principal food, however, is believed to be the giant cuttlefish, which inhabits the depths of the ocean, with the largest of which it appears able to cope. It is very seldom that a sperm whale is captured without having in its stomach some fragments of this large cephalopod, the beaks being almost always found in their intestines and excrement. Ambergris almost always contains such remains.

Seals come next to the cetaceans in voracity and destructiveness, and occupy only a second place, in view of their more limited distribution and their confinement to a certain proximity to the land. The numbers of fishes, especially of the *Gadidae*, doubtless also of salmon, devoured by the seals in the North Atlantic must be something almost beyond calculation, and the destruction on the part of the much larger seals, sea-lions, fur-seals, &c., of the Pacific is probably still greater.

How far the walrus is a destroyer of fish I am unable to say, although it is generally believed to depend, to a considerable extent at least, upon mollusca for food.

Otters are also worthy of mention in this connection, the sea-otter of the Pacific Ocean being very destructive in proportion to its size and numbers. The common otter also devours large numbers of fish in fresh water, levying tribute on many a fine salmon, shad, and other valuable fish.

Although at first sight we may not be inclined to attach much importance to birds as destroyers of fish, yet it is found that they repre-

sent by no means an insignificant factor in the casualties of the class. Every fish-culturist is painfully aware of the destruction of his trout, carp, or other fresh-water species by herons and kingfishers. The fish-hawks take their toll in the rivers and lakes, perhaps more rarely in the sea; but it is among aquatic birds, especially the gulls, the *Pelecanidae* (including cormorants, pelicans, gannets, &c.), the *Alcidæ*, or auks, and some of the ducks that we find the most active oceanic enemies of the finny tribe. In many parts of the ocean the number of birds belonging to these groups is enormous, and even supposing that each bird devours daily only half, or even a quarter, of its weight (a by no means difficult feat), the amount of destructiveness is something quite appalling. It has been estimated that the gannets alone, on the coast of Scotland, devour more herring than are taken by man, their voracity, like that of the cormorant, being very marked. The gulls are less destructive, as they must confine themselves more particularly to the smaller fish which come to the surface, either spontaneously or as driven by predaceous fishes.

The reptiles probably contribute but little to the mortality among fishes in the open sea; but in lagoons and along the shores of islands, especially in brackish water, as well as in fresh, they play their part in the economy of nature. It is especially among the crocodiles, alligators, and caymans that this destructiveness is seen. The sea-snakes of the tropics and sub-tropics in all probability consume large numbers of fishes of such size as can be readily swallowed entirely. In fresh waters the various species of water-snakes also consume a considerable number. Some species of turtle are very destructive to fish, although it is more particularly in fresh water where such forms as the snapping-turtle of North America play well their part. The sea-turtles are said to be vegetable feeders rather than animal, seeking the eel-grass, algae, and other plants. Probably, however, they do not disdain an occasional fish.

Frogs are also very destructive to fish in fresh water, and require a careful looking after by the fish-culturist. The salamanders are too diminutive to devour large fish, but probably consume eggs and young on a large scale. The *Menobranchus*, or large salamander, in the Great Lakes, is said to commit great havoc on the whitefish spawning-grounds, gorging itself on the eggs, and by the aggregate of their numbers largely reducing the crop of young fish.

The destruction of fish in the sea, as might naturally be expected, is greatest from fellow-fishes, the smallest being consumed by those a little larger, these again falling victims to the still more powerful, and so on until we reach such forms as the swordfish, the tunny, the largest sharks, &c., which apparently at least, when fully grown, are free from danger from their own kind. Here, however, there come in as antagonists and destroyers the larger cetaceans; possibly the giant cuttlefish, and man; although such insidious enemies as the lamprey, the myxine, or hag, the pug-nosed eel, and other parasitic fish may even cause the very largest to succumb.

In most cases the fish is destroyed by being taken in at a gulp, by one of its fellows larger than itself, although there are certain forms, such as the *Chiasmodes*, the *Saccopharynx*, &c., which, in the possession of very wide jaws and a capacious stomach sac, can take in entire and digest fishes of twice their own size. Specimens illustrating this are to be found in the National Museum. In many cases, as with the sharks, bluefish, &c., the victim is lacerated, either torn or bitten in two. Fish like the sand-lance (*Ammodytes*), when swallowed alive, often burrow through the stomach and produce death. It is not uncommon for codfish to be taken with the sand-lance in the abdominal cavity, encysted and mummified, several specimens of these having been obtained by Captain Atwood, of Provincetown. The lampreys and myxines, already mentioned as destroying the very large fish, frequently do this still more extensively on the smaller ones. The so-called pug-nosed eel of the Gloucester fishermen (*Simenchelys parasiticus*) is not unfrequently found nestling along the backbone of the halibut and cod where they seem to have the power of abiding for some time without actually causing death. The eel is another of the fishes that destroy life in an unusual way. It is especially noteworthy in connection with gilling for shad, in view of its habit of fastening upon a ripe female, when meshed, and penetrating the abdominal cavity and devouring the eggs in its progress. It is a very common experience for the gillers to find perfectly sound, plump shad, taken in the net, with one and sometimes two or three eels in the abdomen, their destruction having been effected within a period of a few minutes.

It may safely be said that of oceanic fish more or less predaceous, there are many forms that live on vegetable substances while young, but for the most part changing to a carnivorous habit when old. How many species confine themselves exclusively to fish it is impossible to say, as a careful examination of the stomachs of most forms shows at least the occasional presence of crabs, worms, radiates, &c.

I have already referred to the subject of the rapacity of fish, under the heads of migrations and movements, and variations in abundance, &c. I would here simply call to mind the ravages of the bluefish in its attacks upon the mackerel, menhaden, and other species. Great as are these ravages, however, they are probably nothing in comparison with those of different species of the sharks. These, by their enormous size and immense abundance, must, of all oceanic forms, be the most destructive of fish life and constitute the largest factor in the element of mutual injury. Neither is it the largest of the sharks that are the most dangerous. The smaller forms, which come in large schools, migrating with the season, are most effectual in their agency. Every fisherman on the New England coast is familiar with the so-called dogfish (*Acanthias americanus*), a species which rarely exceeds 3 feet in length, but which frequently comes in on the fishing-grounds in countless num-

bers and renders the fisherman's life a burden by the destruction of his bait and the disturbance of the fish.

Holdsworth (Deep-Sea Fishing) refers to the finding of twelve full-sized herring in the stomach of a pollock, and from thirty to thirty-five in the stomach of a codfish. I have taken forty-seven scup of quite considerable size from the belly of a bluefish of about 5 pounds weight. Instances of this kind could be readily multiplied.

To what extent fishes are destroyed by invertebrates it is difficult to decide, although probably this agency is one of considerable moment. Many species are infested with entezoa or intestinal worms, which find a lodgment in the brain, in the muscles, or the viscera, and which must necessarily involve more or less of mortality. Others have external parasites adherent to them, consisting in larger part of crustaceans of greatly modified shapes. The free-swimming crustacea, as lobsters, crabs, &c., undoubtedly kill great quantities of fish. Their office seems to be more particularly that of scavengers to destroy the weakly or dead individuals. Certain of the jelly-fishes are known to feed on small fishes. It is quite probable that the squids and cuttle-fish live mainly upon fish. Enormous numbers of squids are found at certain times in certain waters, and represent undoubtedly great destruction among fishes. Many illustrations of this relationship could be multiplied, but the subject need not be continued, as I merely wish to show the general relationships.

How far fishes are affected by epidemics or other diseases it is difficult to say, although there are many instances on record in which this condition is assigned as the cause of their disappearance. It is said that the bluefish off the coast of New England were all exterminated by some disease shortly after the middle of the last century, their carcases being found floating in enormous masses over the sea. Whatever may have been the cause of their absence it is very certain that the bluefish was not known again until about 1820, when they made their appearance gradually, of small size, but for many years in nothing like their original abundance. It is said that they were often known of such magnitude in the last century that fifteen would fill a barrel, representing a weight of 200 pounds when cleaned and dressed. Comparatively few such fish are now taken in Vineyard Sound.

Of late years there have been seasons, especially in the summer and autumn, when fish in the Gulf of Mexico have been found dead in immense numbers. The cause of this has not been ascertained, some ascribing it to actual disease, others considering it the result of some poisonous infusion or exhalations in the water.

2. THE INFLUENCE OF MAN.

A very large element in the aggregate of destruction of fishes by the agency of other animals is furnished by the fishing and fisheries, man deriving, in all parts of the world, especially near the sea-shore, a large

part of his food from the sea, and drawing upon it for supplying distant localities, or laying up stores for seasons when fish could not be readily obtained. These fisheries in the northern hemisphere are particularly extensive, a large portion of the population of both shores of the Atlantic finding extended employment in this vocation. The herring fisheries of Scandinavia, Holland, and Great Britain, and in less degree of British America and New England, the fisheries for cod and other *Gadidae* in the entire North Atlantic, the capture of halibut, salmon, &c., are all included in this list. In the North Pacific Ocean the salmon and cod represent for the most part this industry. In the warmer countries of the world, although fish are perhaps absolutely as abundant as in the north, they can be used only for daily consumption, it being found almost impossible to salt or dry them for future use; and hence the anomaly of vast importation of cod, herring, and other salted and dried fish into Cuba, the West Indies, and South America, when these regions can show much better food-fish in countless abundance.

Great, however, as is the destruction of fishes by man in his various fisheries, it can easily be shown that it constitutes a very insignificant portion of the slaughter, when compared with what is effected by fishes themselves, and it may safely be said that the total of the fisheries of the North Atlantic and Pacific for the year does not equal the destruction, possibly in a single hour, by other causes.

We are apt to ascribe a very undue influence to human agencies in affecting the supply of fish by positive diminution or by direct extermination. That man does influence the supply to some extent may readily be conceded, especially in the case of the anadromous fish. The obstructions of rivers by dams are among the most important. The other agencies of poisoning the water by refuse from factories have little weight excepting in rivers, scarcely attaching to bays and shores. It is even a question whether, in some instances, man does really increase the food supply by the destruction of certain forms that are predaceous. Reference has already been made to the great problem whether the pursuit of the bluefish by the Gloucester fishermen on the eastern coast of the United States is attended by a further increase of the fish on which it especially preys, such as the menhaden, scup, weakfish, &c., and whether every shark and every porpoise killed by man also gives a new lease of life to a great number of fishes.

A movement now (1877) on foot promises to add another to the illustrations of man's indirect influence upon the fisheries in the disturbance of the balance of power. It has been ascertained that by treating fish with bisulphide of carbon or benzine the oil can be extracted much more easily than by the ordinary process, leaving, indeed, a residuum in the form of a dry powder. It is claimed that the by-product of oil is about 80 per cent. more than by the kettle or presses, and the dried scrap instead of yielding 10.5 per cent. of ammonia produces 14.

A building is now being erected at Wood's Holl (85 feet by 40, and

34 feet high) to practice the process, which will be in operation before the close of 1877, with the special object of making artificial fish-flour and dried powders for fertilizing purposes. In this process they expect to work up a great number of refuse fish, which they promise to purchase at the same price as menhaden and in the following order of preference: Bluefish, porpoises, sharks, dogfish, menhaden, and skates. They propose to work up twenty tons of fish each day, and to employ from one to three steamers to cruise for these supplies, extending from Block Island to the coast of Maine, touching all intermediate points.

The extent of destruction to fish caused by the porpoises, skates, and dogfish is well known, and should the anticipated manipulation of forty thousand pounds of refuse fish per day be accomplished, or say twelve millions per year (counting three hundred days to the year, and allowing ten millions of pounds for the destructive kinds), we shall have an enormous withdrawal of predatory fish from the scene of action. This aggregate might be considered as equivalent in destroying capacity to two millions of bluefish at five pounds each; and an estimate of the amount of fish that would be devoured by such a body has been given in my first report. If the success anticipated for this venture be realized, it is probable that other establishments of a similar kind will be started, constituting a still greater relaxation of the exhaustion of the yield of fish. A few years of such fishing should present a marked influence upon the supply of edible fishes along the middle and northern coast of the United States.

3. NATURAL CAUSES OR CHANGES.

Fish as a class are quite subject to fatalities arising from natural causes, and which sometimes operate on a very large scale. Among these, volcanic eruptions are not the least momentous. It very frequently happens that such phenomena from volcanoes near to or in the sea are accompanied by discharges of boiling water or of poisonous gases, which contaminate the waters and cause great destruction to animal life therein. Many cases of this character are on record as incidents in the history of volcanic discharges. Not unfrequently mud is thrown out in vast masses, which fills lakes and streams, or invades the edges of the ocean with disastrous consequences to life. Violent storms and hurricanes are also to be considered in this connection, fish being not unfrequently blown on the shores or taken up bodily and carried to a great distance inland. Sudden changes by winds and currents of the sea bottom not unfrequently cut off portions of the sea occupied by large bodies of fish, which, unable to get back to proper physical surroundings, soon perish. Very often, too, this action of the winds and waves renders the waters very turbid and unfit for animal life in the sea, which is consequently speedily destroyed. Of this, striking illustrations will be given in a succeeding chapter.

An excessive change of temperature, whether the change be to extreme heat or extreme cold, constitutes an important member of the agencies injurious to fishes. The latter phase, however, is the more dangerous, as while the fishes that belong to the colder waters of the ocean are but seldom exposed to an unnatural degree of heat, those of the South Atlantic and the Gulf Coast of the United States are frequently killed at once by a severe turn of cold weather, hundreds of tons of fish frequently perishing within a limited district. This is quite a common accompaniment in the fall and winter of the severe northerns on the Texas coast. Similar cases of death by cold or freezing are often observed on the shores of the New England and Middle States, although usually not so marked in their presentation. It is, however, quite common to find in early winter numbers of scup, tautog, sea bass, and other species in a drying condition on the beach.

Fish killed by cold.—I find among some manuscript notes communicated to me by J. Carson Brevoort, esq., that in 1849 many fish were killed in Massachusetts by the cold, 60,000 pounds of striped bass having been taken from Polk pound, and 120,000 pounds from Newton pound, Martha's Vineyard, and sent to the New York market. He also records that on the 30th of September, 1844, the shores of Jamaica pond were covered with young pompanos, from $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 inches in length, supposed to have been killed by the cold.

Dr. H. C. Yarrow reports that in the winter of 1870–1871, in the latter part of December, great numbers of drum, flounders, small mullet, trout, and spots were frozen at New River (a prolific fishing ground), 45 miles from Fort Macon. The trout, mullet, and flounders were piled on the shore knee high, and were carted all over the country as manure, selling at \$1 per barrel.

The same thing happened a year or two later. Thousands of fish have been frozen at the same place. Almost every winter during the last ten years more or less of the food-fishes have been destroyed by cold.

In addition to the destruction of fish in large numbers by sudden chilling of the water, such as frequently takes place in the Gulf of Mexico and the eastern coast of Florida after a severe norther, many are killed by the action of anchor-ice. Thus, in the vicinity of Wood's Holl, Mass., young herring and other fish are often found in the winter time floating in vast numbers, and also imbedded in the ice which forms at the bottom and floats to the top.

OTHER FATALITIES.—A further example of the method by which large numbers of fishes and other inhabitants of the waters may have been destroyed simultaneously is given by Mr. Henry O. Forbes, of Aberdeen, Scotland, in his account of a visit to the Cocos or Keeling Islands in 1884. In this region, immediately after a cyclone, which occurred January 28, 1876, the water on one side of an adjacent lagoon was observed to be rising from a considerable depth and of a blackened color. It continued to flow for about fourteen days, had an inky

hue, and its smell was "like that of rotten eggs." This was diffused gradually around the lagoon, and passed into the ocean; and within twenty-four hours every fish, coral, and mollusk in the part impregnated with this discoloring substance died. So great was the number of fish thrown on the beach that it took three weeks of hard work to bury them in a vast trench dug in the sand.

It is supposed that this water was impregnated with hydro-sulphuric or carbonic acid. The statement is made that the corals and shells were deeply corroded, the corals, especially, being in many places worn down to the solid base. For a long time after the catastrophe there were no signs of life in the lagoon.

Precisely to what cause we are to ascribe the destruction of fish in the summer season, in the Gulf of Mexico, it is impossible to say. Here, without any apparent reason because of change of temperature or other physical condition, for a period of weeks together, myriads of fish, of all species, are found dying or dead, so much so that they drift ashore in vast numbers, threatening to create a pestilence. It appears that the cause, whatever it be, is disseminated in the water, as smacks loaded with living fish in their wells, intended for the markets of Key West, Cuba, or the north, when entering certain zones experience the loss of their entire cargo. It is possible that the fatality is caused by some algous or fungous plant, which exercises a deleterious effect upon animal life. The statement that the zones of dangerous water are differently colored from the main body, would strengthen this impression. One explanation is that the water from the Everglades, pouring into the Gulf, in some way exercises a deleterious influence.

As a general rule, of the fishes which perish from one of these causes or another, no matter how great the mass, it floats at the surface of the sea until decomposed and wasted, leaving but little in the way of definite remains.

In regard to the agency of physical causes in destroying immense numbers of fish simultaneously, under circumstances to involve their being imbedded and their skeletons thereby preserved, numerous illustrations can be adduced in modern times, as we have already shown. The eruptions of volcanoes along the sea-coast frequently discharge immense bodies of acid or heated waters into the sea that poison everything around them, the fish being imbedded in the mineral matter which accompanies the discharge, or covered up by the ordinary tides, or by the extraordinary currents produced by the same outbreak.

Another very frequent and important natural source of destruction to which we have just referred is in the sudden cooling of tropical waters by the "northerns." These are frequently observed in the Gulf of Mexico, where, in the winter especially, the waters are frequently changed abruptly and to a very marked degree by the persistent blowing of an intensely cold and long continued wind from the north. This

in the regions west of the Gulf is usually accompanied by blinding snow and involves the destruction of man and beast; and on the sea-coast millions of fish of all kinds frequenting the shallower waters are killed. Not unfrequently these are blown ashore in great heaps, poisoning the atmosphere and sometimes constituting by their decomposition the alleged cause of the yellow fever and other serious diseases.

The most plausible explanation of the phenomena of the occurrence of fossil fishes in enormous numbers is suggested by Dr. A. Leith Adams, of the British army,* as the result of personal observation in New Brunswick. The occurrence took place at a small creek, called Anderson's Cove, a short distance to the east of the Magaguadavic River, which empties into the northwestern part of Passamaquoddy Bay, not very far from the town of Saint Andrews and from Saint Stephen. This cove is a lagoon of about 1,300 feet in circumference, into which a small stream enters and communicates with the sea, at high tide only, by a narrow channel. But in the vehement rush of the Bay of Fundy tides the water enters this lagoon with great force and stirs up the mud into a paste, which runs off slowly, at low tide. The incoming stream continually brings down a fresh supply of mud and slime.

On the 24th of September, 1867, a very heavy gale from the west blew directly into Anderson's Cove, disturbing the mud to an unusual degree. The same storm brought into the cove immense numbers of young herring, about six inches in length, with a few other fish, as mackerel and flounders. These, after the storm, were found washed up on the beach in great numbers, while the mud, which by this time had settled, was completely filled with them. The bottom of the lagoon was covered with a layer several feet in depth, the total amount of destruction being almost fearful to contemplate.

There is no reason to doubt that similar conditions, in earlier times, have given rise to some of the fossil deposits referred to.

Another of the natural causes of the destruction of fish is found in the numbers of certain fishes which are stranded when seeking the shallow waters for the purpose of depositing their spawn. Of these the capelin of Newfoundland and Gulf of Saint Lawrence is a notable instance, as it comes in close to the edge of the water in enormous numbers to deposit its eggs. Here the pressure of the continually succeeding schools is such as to force the fish in a body on the beach, this action being sometimes aided by high winds or heavy waves. Windrows of the fish are to be found on the beach, which are in large part carried away and used as manure on the fields. Many of these, of course, would become imbedded in the sand and mud, and constitute material for the investigation of the future geologist. It is in all probability to these circumstances that we owe the occurrence of the capelin as a Tertiary

*Field and Forest Rambles, or Notes and Observations in the Natural History of Eastern Canada. London. Henry S. King, 1873. p. 264.

fossil of the valley of the Saint Lawrence and of certain portions of Northern Europe.

The occurrence of fossil fish in immense numbers in certain geological formations has been a subject of much interest to the geologist and naturalist, and many hypotheses have been promulgated in explanation thereof. It is not at all probable that the ordinary casualties happening to fish would produce anything like the phenomena in question. It is believed that very few fish die of old age, the incidents of life in the sea being such that whenever any animal loses the ability to care for itself some enemy is ready to devour it. The accumulations referred to, found at Monte Bolea in Sicily, in Syria, in many parts of the United States, and elsewhere, probably result either from some mysterious disease attacking the fish in large bodies, or from some physical cause. There is but little evidence to prove the existence of serious epidemics among fish in the sea, although such an occurrence is not at all improbable. Even here, however, it is likely that there would be enough scavengers to devour the dead and dying almost as rapidly as they succumbed to the baleful influence.

One of the methods by which fish are destroyed in great quantities, and yet kept in a condition favoring their ultimate preservation, as in rock strata, consists in the sweeping of large schools, during storms, into low, shallow basins at the edge of the sea, where, of course, death will very soon ensue. The gradual concentration, however, of the water by subsequent evaporation, answers the purpose of a slow and careful salting of the fish, so that for a considerable time after the basin is dry the fish remain in a good state of preservation. If, as is probably often the case, sand and mud are swept in with the fish, and this is repeated at short intervals, a succession of strata with skeletons of fish and other marine objects may result.

A case of this kind has been mentioned to me by Lieut. Z. L. Tanner, U. S. N., who noted the phenomena during the cruise of the United States steamer Narragansett in 1872, at Christmas Island. The surface of the shallow basin inside of the beach was occupied by many hundreds and even thousands of fish, varying in length from a few inches to three or four feet, and preserved in perfectly good condition, the thoroughly cured flesh being, however, too strongly salted to be palatable.

F.—THE NATURAL FOOD OF SEA FISH.

The vegetable kingdom at sea, as well as on land, constitutes the starting point of all animal life, and whatever may be the extent to which animals devour their fellows, whether as adults, embryos, or eggs, there is no doubt that without the presence of plants in some form or other and their assimilation, the existence of animal life in the sea would be an impossibility. It is less easy, however, in the water than on the land to see the connection between the two kingdoms in this respect, especially as the most important element of the vegetable division is in

the extremely minute and more or less microscopic form of diatoms. These, however, swarm in all portions of the ocean and extend into its uttermost ramifications, occurring at depths of three or four thousand fathoms, or at the surface, and equally abundant in the middle of the ocean as on its shores.

There appears to be an immense variety of the lower order of animals, whose special function it is to assimilate these minute algae and convert them into animal matter. These, in turn, are devoured by animals of a higher organization or of larger dimensions, although still microscopic; and after a time, by a succession of such transformations, the matter becomes a portion of the organism of the larger mollusks, crustaceans, radiates, worms, or vertebrates.

The larger plant-growths in the sea also have similar relationships, the so-called sea-weeds, sea-mosses, kelp, &c., furnishing a rich variety of food. Various mollusks and crustaceans devour both the living seaweed and the dead with avidity. The *Nereis* and others among the worms, too, will consume decaying vegetable matter.

The great sea-turtles are also believed to depend very largely upon sea-weeds for food, and the manatee or sea cow of tropical and sub-tropical regions also feeds upon sea-weeds and other submerged marine vegetables.

There are comparatively few fishes within our knowledge that certainly eat sea-weed as a portion of their food, although it is said that the stomach of the striped bass frequently contains such quantities of *ulva* and other succulent vegetation as to render it almost certain that it must have taken it as an article of food. Not unfrequently the vegetable contents of the stomachs of certain fishes may have been taken in accidentally in connection with some shrimp or mollusk which was resting upon it at the time of capture.

Of the higher order of plants very few species are known in the ocean (indeed the *Zostera* or eel-grass is said to be the only form), but immense quantities of the trunks of trees, &c., are constantly carried into the sea from the rivers, and are very speedily attacked by animals specially appointed for the purpose, the most familiar being the teredo or ship-worm, and sometimes certain shrimps or crustaceans, the best known of which on our coast are species of *Limnoria* and *Chelura*. These very soon perform their part in honeycombing and reducing to minute fragments vegetable matter of whatever magnitude, and the fragments, after being made too small to serve as burrows, become in this finally divided state food for other marine objects.

The echini, so abundant on our coast, and especially in the northern waters, are quite omnivorous in their habits and consume both animal and vegetable substances, and are apparently especially adapted for those of harder texture. They devour greedily the soft portions as well as the bones of fishes and possibly of other vertebrates, and have been known to eat off the bark from the stakes used in constructing the

weirs for herring at Grand Manan. Fastening on the exterior, they eat off the bark in circular spots.

There is, therefore, no difficulty whatever in establishing the existence of vegetable matter in the sea in sufficient quantity to serve as the basis for the stupendous mass of animal food derived from it.

Starting thus from the vegetable kingdom the chain of succession of animal life furnishes in one or other of its links food to all the animals of the sea, in the process of such assimilation enormous numbers of distinct organisms being consumed for the support of a single individual. Nor is there any definite ratio between the size of the food used and that of the animal raised upon it, since the baleen or bone whales are believed to live almost entirely upon shrimps, floating mollusks, and upon the smaller fish whenever they can be obtained in sufficiently large schools. It is well known that herring are devoured in multitudes by whales, such as the finback, &c.

Sixty thousand copepods (*Temora longicornis*), by actual count, have been taken from the stomach of a single herring, while many thousands of herring have been taken from the similar receptacle of the whale, which shows that this microscopic shrimp may be regarded as one chief source of the subsistence of the whale—another case of the relation between the infinitely small and the infinitely great.

Some fishes are believed to feed very largely upon the organic mud of the sea-bottom, this of course being rich in some of the smaller forms of animals and the diatoms. The examination of stomachs of large numbers of the common menhaden, by Professor Verrill, revealed no other substances than the mud in question; the fish being provided with very thick, muscular walls to its stomach, a so-called gizzard, for the special purpose of utilizing it. The *Dorosoma*, or gizzard shad, of the rivers of the Atlantic coast, has also a similar provision.

A favorite implement of the naturalist is that called the towing-net. This is simply a bag of gauze, the mouth of which is held open by a ring or brass frame, which is towed behind a boat or vessel so as to take a skimming of the surface of the water. This can never be used in any part of the ocean without very soon obtaining a greater or less number of the minute animal organisms, such as the adult shrimp, the larval stages of certain crabs, embryos of mussels and other mollusks, and small fishes.

Around floating sea-weed in mid-ocean are always congregated great swarms of minute animals. The presence of whales, dolphins, albicores, and other species of animals in mid-ocean also proves the occurrence of food in vast quantities; as although all these species may not themselves devour the lower order of animals, they yet feed upon fishes which do find their sustenance therein.

It is not probable that any fish feed directly upon purely inorganic matter. It is through plants that mineral substances of any kind are introduced into the system, especially that which is required for the formation of bone.

Except in the earlier stages of life, as already explained, the chief sustenance of fishes in the sea consists of animal matter, either dead or living. While some kinds of fish are believed never to feed upon anything but living animals, others are, to a very great extent, scavengers, being especially appointed to devour dead or decaying substances, such as offal or the so-called gurry, &c. The cyprinodonts of the coast are particularly active in this direction. Sharks also exercise the same function in a very marked degree. There are probably but few of the bottom fish that will disdain such substances, consuming living forms with the same readiness. In the business of clearing out refuse fish they are assisted largely by crustaceans, certain mollusks, echini, &c.

The living food of fishes may be divided into two sections: first, eggs and embryos; second, fishes and marine invertebrates of more mature and advanced ages.

The earliest form in which the fish serves as food for its fellows in the sea is in that of the egg, and it is for this reason that with the enormous fecundity of certain fish there is so little apparent increase in their schools. It may safely be assumed that only a small fraction of 1 per cent. of the total number of eggs laid by fishes ever develop embryo fish, by far the greater part being devoured in a very short time. The young fish, also, after birth, is for a certain time immature and to a considerable degree helpless and only able to take food for itself after the absorption of its yolk-bag and the accompanying development of its fins. Before it assumes the shape of the perfect fish and is able to care for itself, it becomes a prey to innumerable enemies; and if of the original deposit of eggs one fish becomes able to care for itself by feeding and hiding to every ten thousand eggs hatched, it may be considered a very satisfactory yield. The proportion, however, doubtless varies with the species.

Under the rate of the fecundity of fishes will be found a table of the numbers of eggs laid by particular kinds of fishes, partly copied from Buckland and partly original, from which we understand that even with this percentage of loss there is still a margin left for the maintenance of the species.

Although the percentage of loss after the embryonic development of the fish is complete is less than before, there is still a very great drain upon the numbers of the species, there being at every step an enemy lurking in wait to devour.

To the large fishes of course there comes a time of comparative immunity, when nothing but the rarer and more powerful inhabitants of the sea can interfere. Even then, however, numbers of smaller enemies may combine together for the overthrow of the monsters that would be more than a match singly for any antagonist, and thus while fish of the known voracity of the cod, haddock, &c., may consume readily species of a smaller size, they have as their antagonists the sharks, the various porpoises, and other cetaceans, and the rarer

giants among the true fishes, such as the swordfish, the tunny or horse-mackerel, &c., which in turn have their antagonists as already mentioned.

The seals, too, devour the larger fish in great quantities; and in turn they are attacked by the cetaceans, such as the orca, or killer whales, and other kinds especially adapted for their destruction. Again, the whales are also antagonized by the killers and various species of swordfish; and, indeed, possibly with the exception of the sperm whale, there is no animal in the sea but what has its foe. Man, however, presents himself as the enemy and antagonist of all the species, and is provided with means for their capture.

We have already referred to the abundance of vegetable matter in the sea, and to the possibility of supplying it in sufficient quantity to serve as the basis of marine animal life, and the marine zoologist will have no difficulty in understanding how the countless numbers of fish in the ocean obtain their food, in view of the myriads of crustacea, of mollusks, of worms, &c., which inhabit the waters.

It is not the species that remain in or near the bottom that are of the most importance, but the free swimming and floating forms that are most extensively and readily devoured. While at no time does the apparatus of the zoologist fail to reveal the presence of animal life, even though of microscopic dimensions, at times this manifests itself in bodies, the masses of which almost stagger the imagination, the sea for hundreds of miles in extent being an animated mush, what with shrimps and other crustaceans, salpæ, and larvæ of mollusks, worms, &c., a bucketful of water taken indiscriminately over the entire area seems filled with animal life. Nor are these organisms confined to the surface, the evidence of the beam-trawl and the dredge revealing its existence in equal quantities below. Various species of minute crustacea are not unfrequently thrown in masses on the beach, so as to constitute windrows of many miles in extent, this of course being but a small percentage of what is left behind. Where these smaller animals are aggregated in unusual numbers are generally to be found great schools of mackerel, herring; whales, and other animals pursuing them, as though certain definite instincts of migration influence them, or they are driven in their season in a definite direction. Schools of fish follow, which are thus brought more nearly to the nets of the fishermen. Indeed, generally the movements of the fish are directed by the instinct of reproduction, in which they aim at finding a suitable locality for the deposit of their spawn, or in search of food, which they either follow or travel to meet.

Among the inhabitants of the deep sea which serve as food for the larger fishes and cetaceans are probably various forms of the cephalopods or cuttle-fish, of which the stomach of the sperm whale frequently contains large masses, proving their occurrence of dimensions far beyond those of which actual critical observation has yet been made. It will, therefore, be readily understood, from what has already been

stated, that life in the sea is a perpetual contest, and that the problem of the survival of the fittest is there worked out to its extremest conclusion. As already shown, no form, however powerful, is free from danger of attack, the giant whale or the enormous kraken being equally liable. Of course many of these species when in fullest vigor can protect themselves by superior fleetness or strength, but with increasing years and infirmities they too must succumb. In this we see the wise provision of nature in securing the perfection of animal existence by providing for the reduction in the excessive abundance of certain forms of animal life and in the removal from the sea of such as are not possessed of the highest bodily vigor.

Much outcry is made not unfrequently as to the wastefulness of different modes of fishing, and legislation is invoked to protect fish, on the ground that the stock will become reduced and the business of the fishermen destroyed. When, however, we fully appreciate the enormous fecundity of marine animals and the immense mass of life that exists in the sea, we can readily understand that the destructiveness of what we are inclined to protect as food-fishes constitutes but a small fraction of the whole. Several calculations have been made by various persons in this regard. Thus, Professor Huxley, in considering the question of the destruction by the herring and cod fisheries on the British coast, calculated that the cod and ling alone actually caught in British waters would, if left undisturbed, have destroyed many more herring than the entire catch by the fishermen, who numbered 15,000 in 1872. Nearly a million barrels were cured, to say nothing of the vast numbers used fresh and for other purposes.

In the first volume of the Reports of the United States Fish Commission, I endeavor to estimate the amount of food devoured by a single species, the bluefish, which occurs in such overwhelming numbers on our coast. Here, taking 1,000,000 fish as the annual consumption in the New York market, and assuming the total number of these fish on our coast to be 1,000,000,000, of 5 pounds each, which may be regarded as an exceedingly moderate calculation, we may consider the amount of other fish that this body of marine wolves will consume. Allowing ten fish per day, which is a moderate estimate, the total destruction daily would be 10,000,000,000, which in the one hundred and twenty days of their abode on the eastern coast of the United States would give 1,200,000,000,000 of fish taken in this part of the season alone. It is not at all an extravagant presumption that each bluefish consumes half its own weight of food per diem; and we should therefore have a total destruction of 2,500,000,000 pounds daily, or 300,000,000,000 pounds in the year. The food of the bluefish consists of menhaden, mackerel, herring, scup, and other species.

It will also be remembered that while the bluefish prey upon other fishes of proportionate size, for every one weighing 5 pounds we may estimate at least a hundred of a smaller size. These are equally voraci-

ous, destroying other fish in proportion, so that it will somewhat tax the human imagination to appreciate the total destructiveness of animal life, resulting from the action of this one species alone.

Mr. Goode, in discussing the distribution and natural history statistics of the menhaden, attempts to make an estimate of the number of these fish devoured on the coast of New England in the summer months by bluefish and other species, and he comes to the conclusion that these may safely be given at three thousand millions of millions. In comparison with this the 750,000,000 captured by man during the same period sinks into utter insignificance. This calculation might be pursued to any extent; but I have presented enough to show that the question of human agencies in the way of affecting or influencing the great ocean fisheries is scarcely worth considering. I by no means wish to be understood as deprecating any legislation in regard to the fisheries, especially in respect to the spawning-grounds, as interference here, while not unnecessarily diminishing the supply to any appreciable extent, may tend to prevent their coming on particular parts of the coast, and thus within the reach of fishermen of a special neighborhood.

If it were in any way our duty to take measures for the prevention of the destruction of life in the sea, and of maintaining the yield of fish generally at its largest figure, we could accomplish it in no better way than by increasing the extent and magnitude of certain of our fisheries. Thus I have shown that there may be a saving of herring by the capture of the cod and ling on the British coast. For every bluefish captured in the waters of the United States many hundreds of other fish are left to enjoy their life, perhaps, however, in their turn to be the means of an increased destructiveness in another series of animals. The capture of whales gives a respite to the schools of mackerel and menhaden, while the destruction of the herring and menhaden relieves, though in an almost infinitesimal degree, the drain upon the crustaceans and the smaller fish.

Another consideration must not be lost sight of, namely, that the adult and old fish, which constitute an object of pursuit on the part of man, are, in proportion to their numbers, much greater destroyers of other fish and the marine animals generally than the younger. It is a well-established principle in the development of vertebrates that the earlier in life the greater the increase of the body resulting from the same amount of food. Thus the new-born infant of 8 to 12 pounds will double his weight in a few months, and with increasing ratio the rate of growth diminishes until when maturity has been reached, unless under particular conditions of the system, the consumption of several pounds per diem does not produce the slightest appreciable increase, and, indeed, may be attended by an actual reduction in weight. The same principle applies to fishes, although, perhaps, to a less degree, and experiments have been carefully made in regard to trout, the culture of which has been the source of greater care than that of any other fish,

Here, according to some writers, it has been ascertained that, while it may require 1 pound of flesh to increase the weight of a trout from 3 ounces to 6, the addition of the next 3 ounces to the weight requires at least 2 pounds of flesh; for the next 3 ounces, 3 pounds; for the next, 4 pounds, and so on in a constantly increasing ratio. Finally, when the fish has attained the maximum development possible in the given limits of the pond or stream, comparatively little effect is produced by any amount of feeding.

In this point of view, therefore, and in reference to a future supply of food, the capture of all the old and fully matured fish is especially desirable, apart from their own greater commercial value.

Worms, mollusks, &c., feed on the organic mud of the sea bottom, caused by the decomposition of sea-weeds, eel-grass, and land or fresh-water plants carried down. Other animals and fish feed on this. Infusoria eat diatoms; larger forms consume infusoria.

Apart from the consumption of shrimps and other crustaceans the stomachs of mackerel are not unfrequently found to contain small sand-lance and what the fishermen call all-eyes. These are said by them to be the embryos, quite recently hatched, of fishes, in which the body is transparent and the eyes very conspicuous, indeed, almost the only portion visible. In summer, schools of all-eyes are found on our coast, sometimes in immense quantities. Captain Hulbert informs me that in July, the stomachs of the mackerel were found loaded with these fish which were seen also on the surface of the water, forming extensive schools. On one occasion he went out seaward from Block Island for 25 miles without getting through the schools, and they were equally abundant to the right and left of him, so thick, indeed, that a dozen at a time could be scooped up in the palm of the hand.

To what species these belong is uncertain, although the fishermen surmise that they are young mackerel. It is, however, quite probable, after all, that they may be the young or zoea-stage of crustaceans.*

Fishermen inform me that they frequently find mackerel apparently feeding on the jelly-fish, their method of attack being from below, coming upward and striking through the center and making a hole in it. It is very common to find the jelly-fish floating on the surface torn to pieces in this way.

* I have frequently found young mackerel—blinks—several inches in length in the stomachs of mackerel. These are sometimes as large as they are able to swallow. Without doubt they also feed to some extent on the smaller crustaceans. As is well-known, a variety of these forms grow on floating sea-weed, and many fishermen consider it a good sign of mackerel in the vicinity when they see floating eel-grass broken into small fragments. They assert that the cause of the eel-grass being “chopped up” in such a manner is because it is bitten into by mackerel. This is perhaps true, and, if so, is doubtless done by the fish while feeding on the small shell-fish with which the grass or sea-weed is generally covered. I have observed mackerel attacking jelly-fish.

Whether they actually find nutriment in the jelly-fish itself, or whether they are in pursuit of young fish or crustacea that so often accompany the medusa, I am unable to say.

The habit of association between the jelly-fish and other species is a very curious one. In Norway the association of young cod and haddock with the *Cyanea arctica* is well known, Professor Sars having called attention to it, and having furnished specimens of fish taken under such circumstances to the National Museum at Washington.

It is a very common thing to find a number of young harvest-fish, dollar-fish, or butter-fish (*Stromateus triacanthus*), swimming near the jelly-fishes, and running under them for protection on the approach of an enemy; indeed, I have seldom found very young butter-fish except in association with the medusa. Young hake are frequently found in a similar association.

G.—REPRODUCTION.

The last division of our topic of the natural history of fishes relates to the subject of their reproduction, and I now proceed to give a brief statement of the more interesting facts of this character. The reproduction of fishes is, for the most part, by means of eggs discharged from the body and hatched externally to it, these eggs when emitted being either adherent to each other and to whatever they touch, or free, floating near the surface of the water, or sinking to the bottom. Not unfrequently the parent covers up the eggs in furrows excavated by a rapid movement of the tail. Occasionally the eggs are discharged in large masses, notably so in the case of the *Lophius*, or fishing-frog, where they are imbedded in a shell of jelly, sometimes 50 feet or more in length and several feet wide. In some instances adhesive eggs are attached to the body of the parent, where they remain until the young are hatched out. At other times they are carried in a pouch under the abdomen, most frequently of the male, as in the pipe-fish (*Syngnathus*); sometimes of the female, as in the *Solenostoma*. Occasionally regular nests are prepared (again generally by the male) usually of vegetable substances, as in the case of the sticklebacks, in which case the eggs are hatched and the young cared for by the male. Numerous other varieties of presentation could be mentioned, but these are sufficient for my present purpose. In not a few instances the eggs are retained in the body of the parent until they are fully developed, although without placental adhesion, except in a modified degree in some of the sharks. In one family, that of the Embiotocoids, of the Pacific coast of California, not more than five to ten or fifteen young are produced at a birth, these sometimes being 3 or 4 inches in length, from a parent of not more than 8 or 10.

Certain species of sharks and sting-rays produce living young, some showing an indication of placental relation to the mother. In all cases

of this kind, where the young are hatched out within the body of the mother, the number is extremely small, compared to what is seen in the case of free eggs, and illustrates very well the enormous waste of life. The different species of Embiotocoids are enormously abundant on the California coast, fully equal, if not surpassing, in numbers many kinds the females of which lay hundreds of thousands of eggs at a time. As, however, all the ova developed produce young, which are protected in the belly of the mother to a period far beyond even that at which the young feeds itself, the larger part of the dangers of infancy are guarded against, and a yield of five to twenty young, from each parent, keeps up the supply more efficiently and extensively than sometimes where ten thousand times that number of eggs is discharged.

The eggs themselves, as laid by the parent, are for the most part globular, and vary greatly in size, those of the eel being microscopically minute; of the cod, much larger, though still very diminutive; those of the salmon, on the other hand, being of the magnitude of a pea; eggs of the ocean catfish are of still greater bulk, being sometimes half an inch in diameter. The males of some, if not all, of the marine *Siluridae*, or catfish, have the curious habit of carrying the eggs either in the mouth or the cavity of the gills until they are hatched, half a dozen to a dozen eggs constituting a laying. One of the largest known eggs, with the exception of those of the Plagiostomi (sharks, skates, &c.), is that of the myxine, or liag, a fish well known in the North Atlantic as a parasite, attacking fishes caught on the hook. Here the shape of the egg is ellipsoidal, much like that of an olive, and the greater diameter sometimes almost three-quarters of an inch in length.

A great variety in shape and size of eggs is found among sharks and skates, these sometimes having a horny shell, and looking as much like dried sea-weed as anything else. The egg of the cestracion shark, of the Pacific Ocean, resembles a bit of sea-weed, twisted up into a spiral shape. That of certain skates is familiar to most visitors to the sea-shore from its resemblance to a brown pillow-case, with the four corners extended into tendrils. These cases are from 2 to 10 inches in length, according to the species. By means of the tendrils they can be attached to sea-weeds and other objects at the bottom of the ocean, and held there until the young are hatched out and escape through the open end of the bag. Many varieties of form of egg-cases exist among the skates, and furnish excellent specific characters.

In further reference to the number of eggs laid by fish I present herewith a table giving some computations, both original and selected, which will serve to illustrate better the variety in this respect:

Species.	Number of eggs.	Weight of fish.	Weight of roe.	Authority.
		Pounds.	Pounds.	
Cod.....	6,867,000		7 $\frac{1}{2}$	Buckland, British Fishes.
Do.....	3,400,000			Bertram, Harvest of the Sea, 1873, p. 4.
Turbot.....	14,311,200	23	5.93	Buckland.
Flounder.....	1,250,000			Bertram, Harvest of the Sea, 1873, p. 4.
Sole.....	1,000,000			Do.
Mackerel.....	500,000			Do
Herring.....	35,000			Do
Perch.....	155,620	3 $\frac{1}{2}$		Buckland
Lumpfish.....	194,112	11	1 $\frac{1}{2}$	Do.
Smelt.....	36,000			Bertram, Harvest of the Sea, 1873, p. 4.
Carp.....	2,059,750	16 $\frac{1}{2}$	5 $\frac{1}{2}$	Buckland's Familiar History of British Fishes.
Goosefish.....	1,050,100	50		G. B. Goode.
Do.....	2,592,000	60		S. F. Baird.

As especial attention has been given by the U. S. Fish Commission to the numbers of eggs laid by the various species of sea-fishes and their average magnitude, I will not here pursue the subject further, but merely insert some original measurements by the Commission of eggs of the herring, cod, and mackerel, showing their average size.

Kinds of fish.	Eggs.	Measurements.	Average.
		Inches.	Inches.
Herring (<i>Clupea vulgaris</i>).....	29 41 63 43 46 62 39 29 77	1.09 1.56 2.31 1.43 1.40 1.79 0.98 0.72 1.93	.0372 .0380 .0366 .0332 .0304 .0289 .0251 .0248 .0251
Cod (<i>Gadus morrhua</i>).....			
Mackerel (<i>Scomber scombrus</i>)			

The places of deposit of eggs by fish have already been referred to to some extent under the head of migrations and movements of fish as affected by the reproductive instinct. I shall therefore make only a brief recapitulation of some of the primary divisions.

The anadromous fish, as already explained, are those that run up from the ocean into the rivers and sometimes lakes in which to deposit their eggs, returning after a short time, and followed by the young after a period sometimes of months and sometimes of one or two years.

The catadromous fish, of which the eel is the only known instance, are those the eggs of which are laid in the sea, the young passing up the rivers and remaining in the fresh waters during the period of immature existence, after which they return to the ocean and probably never again leave it; others, coming from the depths of the ocean, come to the shore to spawn in the summer season, and sometimes even in the depth of winter; others, again, discharge their eggs freely in the sea wherever they happen to be, these eggs, as already explained, floating or sinking to the bottom and being adherent or non-adherent.*

* Prof. Alexander Agassiz has paid special attention to the character and place of deposit of the spawn of fishes of the Atlantic coast, and has furnished me with the

In the investigations before the British Fishery Commission as to the injurious effects of the beam trawl-net, much stress was laid upon its destructiveness to the spawn of fish, notably that of the cod, mackerel, plaice, turbot, and other species. Ample evidence, however, was adduced, both within the knowledge of Professor Huxley and from reliable investigations by Sars and others, that the ova of most of the important sea fishes are discharged in the open sea and float in it until the young fish escapes from the shell. Sars found this to be the case when visiting the Lofoden Islands for the purpose of this investigation, a conclusion absolutely contrary to his previous opinions. Nothing struck him with greater astonishment than the immense number of eggs, either containing embryos or emptied of them, which were to be met with in every direction, these being thickly scattered in the waters over many square miles.

following list of what he calls pelagic spawners, or those the eggs of which are found floating freely in the sea:

The common Sea Perch.	The Mackerel.
The Tautog.	The Striped Bass.
Five or six species of Flounders.	One species of <i>Cottus</i> .
The Silverside or <i>Atherina</i> .	The Goosefish or <i>Lophius</i> .
The Butterfish.	The Cod.
The Menhaden.	The Hake or <i>Phycis</i> .

Most of these were observed by him in the vicinity of Nantucket and a few at Newport. The time of the spawning of these fish, as noted by him, was as follows:

The Flounders, from June to early September.

The Perch and Tautog, the last of June and early in July.

The Cod, in August.

The Hake (*Phycis*), from June to September; the young of all stages swimming on the surface.

The Sea Bass, recently hatched young seen from July to September.

Menhaden, August and September.

Atherina, June and July.

Cottus, July to September.

Butterfish, July to September.

Lophius, June and early July.

The eggs of these several species vary in size from the .06 to the .03 of an inch in diameter. He finds the young are easily identified by the pigment cells, the oil bubbles in the egg, the position of the yolk-bag, the extent of the development of the eyes, and the character of the fins. The only sea fishes whose eggs he knows are deposited on the ground are the *Batrachus tau*, or Toadfish, and some of the Cottoids.

As the result of his extended inquiries on the subject, as secretary of the British commission, Holdsworth thinks that the herring comes shoreward to spawn, but that the eggs may be emitted at a considerable distance from the coast. The eggs are discharged near the bottom and cover the gravel or sea-weed with a kind of cake, which is then immediately milted by the male.

According to observers on our own coast, herring, when spawning, are sometimes in pairs; at others, a large number of both sexes appear to join together, the females discharging their eggs almost simultaneously and the males their milt, in such quantity as to whiten the water.

The Pilchard, a clupeoid fish, second in importance in England according to Holdsworth, certainly spawns in deep water, and then both the adults and the young approach the shore.

Mackerel.—The mackerel, too, he found to have the same characteristic, the eggs of both species being found far out at sea. In both cases the egg was provided with a small globule of oil, apparently for the express purpose of facilitating its suspension in the water, and which was contained in the abdominal sack of the young fish in hatching, and constituted a large part of its embryonic nutriment.

Plaice.—The eggs of the plaice, too, one of the principal flat-fish of Europe, were found floating freely in the sea, and the inference was drawn that most of the flat-fish family, including the turbot, sole, &c., possessed the same characteristics. An analogy in the habits and physiological condition of other species of the cod family, such as the haddock, the pollock, and the hake, also induced Sars to include them in the same category.

As a general rule, the eggs of fish that float freely in the sea are single, and belong to the so-called dry eggs, or lack the glutinous envelope which is found in the case of the herring and some less important fish, which causes them to adhere to each other in masses and to any other object with which they may come in contact. The herring is almost the only sea fish of economical importance that exhibits the last mentioned characteristic. (Deep Sea Fishing, p. 42.)

Many forms of animal life, including fishes of the various *Antennarius*, *Chironectes*, &c., live habitually in mid-ocean, especially among the masses of floating sea-weeds, of which some species actually make nests in which their eggs are introduced.

The rate of growth of the young fish varies with the group. In *Cryptocentrus*, according to Collett, and perhaps in other forms, the capacity of reproduction is developed in a year's time. For the most part, however, it is thought that the ordinary fishes require a period of three or four years before they are able to propagate their kind. It is likely that the sharks require a still greater allowance, although nothing definite is known on this subject.

The actual rate of growth of the individual varies with the species, and probably to a certain extent with the individual, and the average at maturity varies very much with different so-called schools. Thus among the codfish, a school of mature fish coming in to the coast of New Jersey and elsewhere on the south side of New England, may average not more than 5 to 10 pounds, while another school, which visits Cape Ann for the same purpose, averages a much greater weight, individuals of even 100 pounds not being extremely rare. The same difference in the size of cod occurs elsewhere, as also in that of other kinds of fish. What causes this difference it is, of course, impossible to say.

Many fishes experience curious changes of shape and color during the breeding season. These alterations are very much marked in the salmon, the male of which develops a lengthened, hooked jaw, in which formidable teeth make their appearance. A common alteration consists

in the development of a hump in the nape of the neck or in the back of the male, as in the sea bass.

A change of color is also a very common feature, the male generally assuming brilliant tints during the brief season which are not appreciable at other times.

It is difficult to say how long fish can maintain their ability of propagation or reproduction, some forms, in all probability, being more persistent in this respect than others.

In conclusion, a volume could readily be written in regard to the peculiarities of habit, condition, and relationship of fishes, but as the present essay is intended more particularly as an illustration of the fisheries of the North Atlantic, I shall now bring this portion of my subject to a conclusion, and proceed to a more important division, that of the methods, processes, and results of the fisheries themselves.

II.—METHODS OF CAPTURE.

A.—THE FISHING GROUNDS.

In the Western Atlantic there is a remarkable chain of submarine elevations situated between the Gulf Stream and the east coast of North America, and extending from the vicinity of Cape Cod to a point far east of Newfoundland, a distance of more than 1,100 miles. Many of these elevations are of large extent, and, together with others of a similar character but comparatively smaller size that are nearer the land, lying inside of the main range, they constitute what are known as the "banks" or the great fishing-grounds for cod (that is, the various species of the *Gadidae*, of which the cod, *Gadus morrhua*, is by far the most abundant) and halibut.

For the better understanding of the relative position of the banks, their importance, &c., the description will begin with the southwestern grounds and proceed to the north and east.

GEORGE'S BANK.

George's Bank is by far the largest and most important fishing-ground near the coast of the United States, and is second to none in the Western Atlantic except the Grand Bank of Newfoundland. It lies to the eastward of Cape Cod and Nantucket Shoals, and is seemingly an extension of the latter, since the water is no deeper between the southern part of the shoals and the western part of the bank than in many places on it. As laid down on the charts the southern limit is in $40^{\circ} 40'$ N. latitude, although 10 miles south of that the depth of water does not exceed 41 fathoms, and therefore the southern boundary may be placed at $40^{\circ} 30'$ and the northern at $42^{\circ} 05'$ N. latitude. The eastern part is in $66^{\circ} 27'$ and the western in $69^{\circ} 00'$ W. longitude, making the greatest length about 130 miles from the northeast to the southwest extremity, and the greatest width 95 miles north and south. The

depth is from 2 to 50 fathoms. On the western part, between the parallels of $41^{\circ} 10'$ and $41^{\circ} 53'$ N. latitude, and the meridians of $67^{\circ} 20'$ and $68^{\circ} 37'$ W. longitude, are a number of shoals known as the East Shoal, the North Shoal, the Southwest Shoal, Cultivator Shoal, &c. The Southwest Shoal is the largest, being 15 miles in length. There is from 2 to 15 fathoms of water on these shoals and between them from 12 to 30 fathoms. The tides sweep over these with great force, causing strong rips, and during rough weather the sea breaks heavily on them, rendering approach to their vicinity extremely hazardous. The bottom is chiefly sand, although patches of rough ground, gravel, pebbles, and rocks, of more or less extent, are found on some parts of it.

Its situation between the Bay of Fundy and the Gulf Stream causes the tides to run swifter than on the other banks, and to swirl around instead of going directly back and forth in opposite directions. They run around the compass, from left to right, attaining the greatest strength when at SE. and NW., and the least in a southwest and northeast direction. The first attempt at fishing on this bank of which there is any record was made in 1821 by three Gloucester vessels. But the George's cod and halibut fishery is of later date, as it did not become fully established as a permanent business enterprise until about 1835, although vessels went there for halibut in 1830. At first the catch was mostly halibut, but since 1850 it has been chiefly codfish, although more or less halibut are taken with them. During the months of February, March, and April large schools of cod make their appearance on the bank. They are generally found on the "winter fishing-ground," a part of the bank lying to the eastward of the shoals, between $41^{\circ} 30'$ and $42^{\circ} 00'$ N. latitude and $66^{\circ} 38'$ to $67^{\circ} 30'$ W. longitude. This is essentially a spawning ground for the cod, which appear to come on the bank from the southeast, as they almost invariably, after reaching the ground, move slowly to the north and west as spring approaches. This is in the direction of the shoals, and, as the pursuit of the fish brings the vessels near the latter, great loss of life and property sometimes occur in heavy easterly gales and storms. As soon as the spawning season is over the schools of cod break up, but more or less fish are caught on different parts of the bank during the entire year, though rarely, if ever, are they found so plenty as when the winter school is on.

The codfish fleet, which numbers about one hundred sail, is wholly from Gloucester, Mass. Besides these there are twenty-five to thirty vessels from the same port that fish on George's for haddock in the winter, and a few others from New London, Conn., and other ports on Long Island Sound engage in the cod and halibut fishery in spring and summer.

BROWN'S BANK.

Brown's Bank lies in a northeasterly direction from George's Bank, being separated from the latter by a gully. This bank is imperfectly

laid down on the charts, which therefore fail to give an adequate idea of its extent and importance as a fishing-ground. Its greatest length east and west is 53 miles, from $65^{\circ} 10'$ to $66^{\circ} 23'$ W. longitude, the greatest breadth 47 miles, from $42^{\circ} 15'$ to $43^{\circ} 02'$ N. latitude, and the depth varies from 20 to 55 fathoms. There is a small shoal on the northern part, the location of which has not been definitely determined, where it is said there is not more than 9 to 15 fathoms. The bank slopes gradually from the shoal in a southerly direction, but falls off steep on the northern side. The bottom is mostly composed of gravel, pebbles, and rocks, the latter predominating near the shoal.

The tides are nearly as strong here as on George's Bank, but run more directly to and from the Bay of Fundy, the northeast and southwest set being generally much weaker than on the latter bank.

Cod, halibut, and haddock are the principal fish taken, although cusk, pollock, and hake are found more or less. Cod are quite plenty in the winter and some good fares are obtained, although but comparatively few vessels fish there at that season, most of them being in the George's fleet. At other seasons, however, the fishing on Brown's Bank compares favorably with that on any of the banks in the vicinity, and quite a number of the so-called Georgesmen are engaged in fishing there. The cod is found the year around. Halibut were formerly found very plenty, but at present occur in much less numbers. Sometimes the haddock fishermen make a trip to this bank during the winter and good catches are occasionally obtained.

JEFFREY'S LEDGE.

This may perhaps be considered one of the best shore fishing-grounds in the Gulf of Maine, although it is comparatively small. It is seemingly an extension of the shoal ground that makes off in a northeasterly direction from Cape Ann. It is about 20 miles long NE. and SW. and from 2 to 4 miles wide. Its southern limit is $42^{\circ} 54'$, and northern $43^{\circ} 11'$ N. latitude, and the eastern and western boundaries may be placed at $69^{\circ} 58'$ and $70^{\circ} 18'$ W. longitude. The bottom is rocky on the shoalest parts, with gravel and pebbles along the edges. The depth of water is from 27 to 35 fathoms on the bank, falling off to 40 and 50 fathoms on the borders. Usually there is little or no tide, though occasionally there is some current setting to the SW. Cod, cusk, and haddock are taken in the fall, winter, spring, and early summer, with more or less hake or pollock mixed with them. For a number of years Jeffrey's Ledge was a favorite winter fishing-ground for haddock, which were very abundant, and even at the present time many vessels resort there in pursuit of haddock; but since the haddock fishermen have extended their cruises to the outer banks, a less number, of course, go to Jeffrey's. Besides the haddock catchers, the vessels engaged in the shore fisheries resort to this ground in the spring and fall.

CASHE'S LEDGE.

This is not a very important fishing-ground at present except for a brief season in the spring, although it is resorted to somewhat by the shore fishermen in summer and fall, and sometimes good trips are obtained. It bears east from Cape Ann, from which the shoals are 76 miles distant. The bank is about 22 miles long, from $42^{\circ} 49'$ to $43^{\circ} 11'$ N. latitude, and about 17 miles wide, from $68^{\circ} 40'$ to $69^{\circ} 3'$ W. longitude. There are three small shoals on the western part of the ground. The southern one has 7 fathoms, the middle one 4 fathoms and the northern one 11 fathoms of water. The position of the middle shoal is $42^{\circ} 56'$ N. latitude and $68^{\circ} 52'$ W. longitude. From this the south shoal bears S. by E. and the north shoal NNE., each being $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles distant from it. These break in rough weather, and, though of small extent, are dangerous to passing vessels, especially as they are almost directly in the track of vessels bound to and from Cape Sable to Massachusetts Bay. With the exception of the shoals the depth of water ranges from 15 to 60 fathoms. The ground is more or less broken, with bottom of sand, pebbles, and rocks. The greater part of the fish caught here are cod, hake, and cusk. Halibut are rarely seen, and haddock and pollock are less plenty than the other kinds. Good trips are often secured on the edge of the ground in May and June, but the dogfish, which appear about the last of June or in July, usually drive everything before them and for a time stop the fishing. The class of vessels fishing on Cashe's range from 15 to 45 tons, and are what are known as shore-trawlers.

JEFFREY'S BANK.

This bank, which lies east of Cashe's Ledge, is of comparative little importance as a fishing-ground. It is about 20 miles long SW. and NE., and 10 miles wide, the northern and southern limits being $43^{\circ} 15'$ and $43^{\circ} 30'$ N. latitude. The eastern edge is in $68^{\circ} 25'$ and the western in $68^{\circ} 46'$ W. longitude. The bottom, which is somewhat broken, is composed of mud, sand, gravel, and pebbles, with a depth varying from 35 to 70 fathoms. Cod, haddock, hake, and cusk are the fish most plentiful; some pollock are caught, but halibut are rarely taken. The best season is in late spring and early summer, before the dogfish schools strike, after which but few fish can be obtained. This bank is resorted to by the smaller-sized vessels of from 15 to 50 tons.

GERMAN BANK.

Although this bank is not usually laid down on the charts it is one of the most important in the Bay of Fundy. It bears SE. from Baker's Island light (Mount Desert), from which the northwest part is about 52 miles distant. The length is about 15 miles and the width 9 to 10 miles. It lies between $43^{\circ} 38'$ and $43^{\circ} 53'$ N. latitude, and $66^{\circ} 58'$ to $67^{\circ} 15'$ W. longitude. There is from 65 to 100 fathoms of water. The bottom is

mostly a tough red clay, but with spots of mud, sand, gravel, and pebbles on some parts. The tide sets out and in the Bay of Fundy about SW. and NE., but is not so strong as might be expected. Cod, hake, cusk, and haddock are the fish which are chiefly taken, but a few halibut and pollock are occasionally caught. The fishing season is from April to October, although fish are usually the most abundant in the spring. This bank is resorted to chiefly by vessels from the coast of Maine, but is sometimes visited by the Massachusetts fishermen.

MARBLEHEAD BANK.

This fishing-ground, which is quite an important one for the shore cod-fishermen, is not laid down on the charts. Therefore the fishermen who visit it are probably the only persons familiar with its location, or who are able to estimate its extent. The ground which they call Marblehead Bank is situated between Grand Manan and German Banks, the shoal water bearing SSE. from Mooseabec light, a distance of 32 miles. It is about 12 to 15 miles long and 7 or 8 miles wide, and lies between $44^{\circ} 00'$ and $44^{\circ} 10'$ N. latitude and $66^{\circ} 58'$ to $67^{\circ} 13'$ W. longitude. There is from 35 to 70 fathoms of water, and the bottom is mostly clay and gravel. The fish that occur in the greatest numbers are cod, pollock, and haddock, but with these are more or less hake and cusk. The best fishing is generally in the spring and early summer. The same class of vessels—shore fishermen—as frequent Grand Manan and German Banks also resort to this, but occasionally those of a larger size make one or more trips during the summer season.

GRAND MANAN BANK.

Grand Manan Bank lies at the entrance of the Bay of Fundy, and bears SW. $\frac{1}{2}$ S. from the southwest head of Grand Manan Island, from which the northern part of the bank is 15 miles distant. It is 10 miles long and 5 miles wide, and lies in a SW. and NE. direction. The bottom is mostly stones and gravel, and the depth of water varies from 24 to 45 fathoms. The tides are quite strong, but not enough so to prevent trawling. Cod and pollock are the principal fish, cusk, hake, haddock, and halibut being less plenty. The fishing season is from April to October, when the fish come on the bank to feed. In the spring the fish are usually the most plentiful on the southwest part, but later in the season the best fishing is generally obtained on the other end of the ground. It is a favorite fishing-ground for the class of small vessels commonly known as shore-fishermen.

SEAL ISLAND GROUND.

Off the western part of Nova Scotia there is an important fishing locality known to the fishermen as the "Seal Island Ground," although no name is given on the charts. This may not, perhaps, be called a

bank, as it is shore soundings, which slope gradually from the land to the south and west, but continue in a northerly direction beyond what may properly be considered the limit of the ground. To the south it extends nearly to Brown's Bank, from which it is separated by a narrow gully; to the west 38 miles from Seal Island, the western land of Nova Scotia; and to the northwest about 35 miles. The southern limit is in $43^{\circ} 00'$, and the northern in $43^{\circ} 45'$ N. latitude, while the western boundary may be placed at $66^{\circ} 40'$ W. longitude.

There is a small shoal, the Pollock Rip, with a depth of 7 fathoms, which bears SW. from Seal Island, from which it is distant $9\frac{1}{2}$ miles, but with this exception, the ground slopes quite gradually, the depth varying from 15 to 70 fathoms. The bottom is principally composed of coarse gravel and pebbles, with occasional rocky spots of more or less extent. The tides sweep out and in the Bay of Fundy with considerable force, the course changing with the direction of the land, so that while they run nearly north and south on the northern part of the ground, they swing around to northwest and southeast to the southward of Seal Island. The flood is much stronger than the ebb, and the fishermen estimate that one flood will carry a vessel nearly as far in a northerly direction as two ebbs will in the opposite way.

The fish that are principally caught on this ground are cod, haddock, and pollock, although halibut, cusk, and hake are taken to a limited extent, and occasionally herring or mackerel are netted for bait. Cod are generally more plentiful from spring to fall than during the winter, but haddock and halibut are found all the year. Fishing usually begins in April or May, and continues until October. Halibut were formerly very abundant, but are now comparatively scarce.

This ground may be considered essentially a feeding-ground for the cod, which come here after the spawning season is over to fatten upon the crabs and mollusks on the bottom and the herring and other species of small fish that are swept back and forth in the tide-rips. All parts of the Seal Island ground are fished on at the same time. This was formerly a favorite fishing-ground for vessels from the coast of Maine, but since trawling has come to be so universally adopted but few American vessels except "hand-liners" go there. The fleet engaged in fishing there now is principally composed of vessels belonging to the western part of Nova Scotia, which generally "fish at a drift," going back and forth over the ground with the wind and currents.

ROSEWAY BANK.

Roseway Bank lies in a northerly direction from Le Have Bank and SE. from Shelburne light. It is oblong in shape and of small extent, the greatest length being only 19 miles, and breadth 12 miles. The limits are $43^{\circ} 13'$ and $43^{\circ} 32'$ N. latitude, and $64^{\circ} 30'$ to $64^{\circ} 38'$ W. longitude. The bottom is sand, gravel, and rocks, and there is a depth of from 33 to 48 fathoms. The current here is not nearly so strong as

in the vicinity of Cape Sable, or Brown's Bank. The general set is about WSW. and ENE., the westerly current usually being much the strongest, although both the force and direction is somewhat influenced by the winds.

The principal fish are cod, haddock, and cusk, but hake, pollock, and halibut are occasionally taken. The season is usually from May to October, during which time fishing is carried on principally by small-sized vessels from the western part of Nova Scotia, although a few American vessels occasionally go there. To the northwest of Roseway, and between it and the land, is "Cape Negro Mud," a good ground for cod at certain seasons. It is of small extent, with muddy bottom, and a depth varying from 60 to 80 fathoms.

LE HAVE BANK.

Le Have Bank is situated to the eastward of Brown's and south and east of Roseway Banks. It extends from $42^{\circ} 53'$ to $43^{\circ} 24'$ N. latitude, a distance of 31 miles, and from $63^{\circ} 50'$ to $64^{\circ} 47'$ W. longitude, a distance of 41 miles. Much of this westerly extension is a long narrow prong that makes out from the main body of the bank. The bottom is largely composed of coarse gravel, pebbles, and rocks, with only here and there small spots of sand. The depth of water is from 40 to 50 fathoms. The general set of the current is mostly to the westward, but this, however, is influenced very much by the direction and strength of the winds. The fish that are chiefly taken on this bank are cod and haddock, although the other species of bottom fish are found more or less plentiful. Cod are found at all seasons of the year, but are more abundant during the early winter than at any other time, and good trips are frequently obtained by the Gloucester vessels, which are the only ones that go there at that season. The Gloucester winter haddock-catchers, who carry these fish fresh to Boston market, have extended their trips from George's and Brown's Banks to Le Have, and during the present winter (1880-'81) have made some remarkably good catches.

LE HAVE RIDGES.

The fishing-ground known as Le Have Ridges is simply a continuation of Le Have Bank to the eastward in the direction of the Western Bank, a distance of about 45 miles. This makes the eastern limit in $62^{\circ} 50'$ W. longitude, while the northern and southern boundaries are about the same as those of Le Have Bank. The bottom is a succession of ridges of gravel and pebbles, with occasional patches of rocks, and the depth varies from 55 to 85 fathoms. The current is weaker here than farther west on the bank, and, excepting with easterly winds, is but little noticed. The general set is westerly. The "Ridges" were for a number of years one of the favorite places of resort for the halibut catchers in the winter, and many good trips of cod have also been taken at that

season. At present but few halibut are caught, except in the deep water along the southern edge of this ground, where sometimes they have been found quite plenty for nearly the entire year. Hake are also found in large numbers in the deep water about the borders of the ground, and even on the ridges. As a general thing but few vessels besides those from Gloucester have made a practice of fishing on Le Have Ridges, though a few cod fishermen from other places stop there now and then during the summer.

SAMBRO BANK.

This bank lies in a westerly direction from the Western Bank, but is so small that it is of little importance as a fishing-ground and is but little resorted to by American vessels. It lies between $43^{\circ} 36'$ and $43^{\circ} 47'$ N. latitude and $65^{\circ} 40'$ to $63^{\circ} 00'$ W. longitude, the greatest length being 15 miles and width 11 miles. There is from 50 to 60 fathoms of water, and the bottom is mostly sand, gravel, and pebbles.

WESTERN BANK.

The Western Bank is one of the most important fishing grounds in the Western Atlantic, considered either as to size or the amount of fish taken on it. Lying off the eastern coast of Nova Scotia, it has Le Have Ridges on the west, and Bankquereau on the east, from both of which it is separated by gullies. The general direction of the bank is WSW. and ENE.; the eastern limit is $59^{\circ} 07'$, and the western $62^{\circ} 27'$ W. longitude, making the extreme length 193 miles. The southern limit is in $42^{\circ} 51'$, and the northern in $44^{\circ} 46'$ N. latitude, the extreme width, therefore, being 95 miles.

On the eastern part of the bank is Sable Island. This is about 20 miles long and $1\frac{1}{2}$ miles wide, and composed wholly of sand, which for nearly the entire length is in hummocks, caused probably by the action of the wind. Off either end of the island are long and dangerous sand-bars. The general direction of the island and bars is east and west, although they take the form of a crescent with the concave side on the north. The depth on the bars for a distance of from 7 to 10 miles from the island does not exceed 2 fathoms, and even 10 miles farther out in an easterly and westerly direction there is not more than 10 or 11 fathoms. On the middle ground—a portion of the Western Bank which lies in a northerly direction from Sable Island about 25 miles distant—there are several shoal spots with from 10 to 19 fathoms on them.

As a general rule the bank slopes gradually from the island to the south and west, the depth ranging from 18 to 60 fathoms. The general character of the bottom is sandy, but there are patches of gravel and pebbles. The currents in the vicinity of Sable Island are occasionally quite strong, and generally irregular, being very much influenced by the winds. On the greater part of the bank there is usually but

little current. The set of what there is, however, is mostly in a westerly direction. Cod and halibut are the principal fish taken, though the other species of bottom fish are found in limited quantity. The former are generally the most abundant in the spring, from the first of March to June, although good fares are obtained throughout almost the entire year. For more than twenty-five years the Western Bank has been a favorite resort of the halibut fishermen. At first these fish were found very plenty in from 45 to 60 fathoms, and since 1876 have been caught in great numbers along the edge on the south and east sides in from 100 to 300 fathoms. Like the cod, they are found during the entire year, the period of greatest abundance, however, being from the first of January to the first of October. The Western Bank may be considered both as a feeding and spawning ground for the cod and halibut. It abounds with shell-fish and crustaceans, as well as with several species of small fish upon which the cod and halibut prey. Although the cod do not gather in such great schools in winter as they do on George's Bank, it is nevertheless quite evident that they assemble at that season for the purpose of reproduction. Usually they are found the most plentiful on the western part of the bank in winter and early spring, but as the season advances they move into shoaler water in the vicinity of Sable Island, the "bend" of the island and about the bars being favorite grounds during the late spring and early summer. Vessels from all along the New England coast and from the British Provinces resort to this bank to pursue the cod fishery, but fishing for halibut is almost exclusively carried on by the Gloucester fleet.

THE GULLY.

Although the "Gully" cannot be called a bank, being just what its name suggests, a deep gully between two banks, it is nevertheless too important as a halibut fishing-ground to be omitted from a general description of the fishing banks. This lies between Bankquereau and the Western Bank, being bound on the north and east by the former, and on the south and west by the latter. The entire length of the gully is more than 60 miles, but the halibut ground is of less extent, and the limits, east and west, may be placed at the 59th and 60th meridians of west longitude. It is about 18 miles wide, on the eastern part, from $44^{\circ} 08'$ to $44^{\circ} 26'$ N. latitude, but narrower farther west. There are several ridges with rocky and gravelly bottom and a depth of 75 to 125 fathoms, on which the halibut are usually caught. On either side of these ridges the bottom is generally sand or mud, excepting in the eastern section, where it is composed mostly of pebbles and sharp rocks.

The current generally sets in a westerly direction, but is very irregular in strength; an easterly wind often causes it to increase very perceptibly, while at other times there may be but little or no tide. When the halibut fishing first began on this ground it was carried on chiefly

in the spring on the northern and western part, but in the spring of 1877 the fishermen made trials farther out, in deeper water, and excellent fares were obtained as late as June and July. Since that time good fares have been taken during the winter season, and it appears that halibut come to this place especially to feed, as they generally move to other localities just previous to the spawning season. With a few exceptions the Gloucester halibut vessels are the only ones fishing on this ground.

BANKQUEREAU.

This may be considered among the most important of the fishing banks lying between the 40th and 48th parallels of latitude. It lies in an easterly and northerly direction from the Western Bank, being separated from the latter by the "Gully." The former bank is long and comparatively narrow, and lies in an east and west direction. The extreme length is 118 miles, from $57^{\circ} 20'$ to $60^{\circ} 04'$ W. longitude. The southern limit is $44^{\circ} 05'$ and the northern $45^{\circ} 01'$, a difference of 56 miles, but the widest place, the eastern part, does not exceed 46 miles.

There is a shoal ground called the "Rocky Bottom," on the eastern part of the bank, which has a depth of 16 fathoms, while elsewhere there is from 18 to 50 fathoms. The Rocky Bottom is much frequented by the hand-line dory fishermen during the summer, and sometimes several hundred dories are fishing there very close together.

The bottom is generally rocky, but there are patches of sand and gravel on some parts of the bank. The current from the Gulf of Saint Lawrence and the polar current meet here, but, though this causes considerable irregularity, the latter is usually the strongest, and the set is therefore chiefly in a westerly direction. The force is much influenced by the wind, so that there may be quite a strong tide for several days together and then but little or none.

But few kinds of fish, with the exception of cod and halibut, are taken on Bankquereau; hake, haddock, and cusk being comparatively rare. Halibut are found throughout the entire year in the deep water along the edges of the bank, where, at a depth of from 100 to 400 fathoms, large numbers of them are often taken. These are apparently both feeding and breeding grounds for the halibut, and it is not unusual for a school of them to remain several weeks or even months in one locality, although it is probable that some of the schools that "strike" on the eastern part of the bank in the spring are migrating farther north. The best season for cod is from May to November, when the schools gather on the bank to feed on the lant, squid, crustacea, and shell-fish that usually occur in great abundance. As a general thing cod are found the most plentiful on the eastern part of the bank, although good catches are frequently obtained farther west. French, British, Provincial, and American fishing vessels resort to this bank for cod in summer, and the American (Gloucester) fresh halibut fleet visit it at all seasons.

CANSO BANK.

This bank lies to the south and east of Cape Canso, from which it derives its name; it is unimportant as a vessel fishing-ground, and is too distant from the land to be much resorted to by small boats. It lies between $45^{\circ} 00'$ and $45^{\circ} 16'$ N. latitude and $59^{\circ} 58'$ to $60^{\circ} 42'$ W. longitude; the greatest length, in an east and west direction, being 30 miles, and the width 16 miles. There is a depth of from 30 to 56 fathoms, and the general character of the bottom is sandy, with spots of gravel or pebbles.

MISAINÉ BANK.

Although Misaine Bank is quite large, it is but little resorted to by fishermen, and therefore it may be said that as a fishing-ground it is unimportant. This fact seems quite remarkable, since it is not more than 30 miles distant in a northerly direction from Bankquereau, which is a good ground for cod and halibut. The extreme length is 61 miles, in an easterly and westerly direction, the limit being $58^{\circ} 08'$ and $59^{\circ} 28'$ W. longitude. The width is 41 miles, from $44^{\circ} 59'$ to $45^{\circ} 40'$ N. latitude. The depth of water varies from 40 to 60 fathoms, and the bottom is generally broken and rocky. But little can be said concerning the abundance of fish on this bank, since it is so rarely visited by fishing vessels that no reliable information can be obtained concerning this matter. The natural inference is, however, that the bank has been fished on more or less, and though cod and other bottom fish are found they are not so plentiful as on other banks.

ARTIMON BANK.

Artimon Bank lies north from the eastern part of Bankquereau, being separated from it by a narrow gully. It is of such limited extent that, compared with the latter, it is of but little importance as a fishing-ground. The fishermen generally prefer to try on the larger bank, and therefore but comparatively little is known about the abundance of fish on Artimon Bank, although it is known that the same kinds may be taken on one as on the other. It is 17 miles long and 10 miles wide, with a depth of 37 to 50 fathoms, and bottom of coarse gravel and rocks.

SAINT PIERRE BANK.

Until quite recently the bank of Saint Pierre was considered a very important fishing-ground for both cod and halibut, and was much resorted to by American as well as French and British provincial fishermen. At present, however, fish are much less abundant than formerly, and it can scarcely be placed in the front rank of fishing banks. It is situated to the northwest of Grand Bank and Green Bank, and off the south coast of Newfoundland, the northern part being only 11 to 15 miles distant from the French islands of Miquelon and Saint Pierre. It

is oblong in form, and extends in a northwest and southeast direction. The length is 110 miles, and width 60 miles, and it lies between the parallels of $45^{\circ} 15'$ and $46^{\circ} 45'$ N. latitude, and the meridians of $55^{\circ} 21'$ and $56^{\circ} 21'$ W. longitude. There is from 22 to 50 fathoms of water. The bottom is generally rocks and pebbles, covered with a growth of reddish-colored bryozoans, but on some parts there are places of considerable extent where it is composed of sand or gravel. Ordinarily there is not much current on this bank, although sometimes, when driven by strong winds, the polar current, which sweeps around the south coast of Newfoundland, is quite strong. Cod and halibut are the only food-fish that are found in any numbers, although a few cusk and haddock are sometimes taken. The season for both cod and halibut is from the 1st of April to November. The best season for cod is from the 1st of June to October, when they come here in pursuit of capelin and squid. Halibut were formerly taken on the shoal parts of this ground during the spring and summer, but at present are rarely found in any abundance except in the deep water along the edge, or on rocky spots, a distance of 15 to 20 miles from the bank, where there are no soundings laid down on the charts. Some of the schools of halibut find their breeding grounds on these rocky patches, but the greater part pass along the edge in the spring on their way to the north. With the exception of the fresh halibut catchers, few fishermen besides the French make an attempt to fish on Saint Pierre, as the other banks offer much greater inducement.

GREEN BANK.

Green Bank is one of the least important of its size in the Western Atlantic, if only that part laid down on the charts as such is considered. But it may be said, however, that one of the best halibut grounds is in the deep waters near its southern part, and as this is also called Green Bank by the fishermen, it may not be out of place to consider it in this connection. This bank is situated between Grand and Saint Pierre Banks, being 7 miles distant from the former and 13 miles from the latter. The extreme length is 54 miles north and south, between $45^{\circ} 15'$ and $46^{\circ} 09'$ N. latitude, and it is 33 miles wide, the meridians of $54^{\circ} 17'$ and $55^{\circ} 03'$ W. longitude bounding it on the east and west.

The depth varies from 40 to 60 fathoms, and the bottom is composed of sand, shells, pebbles, rocks, and corals. The general direction of the polar current, which sets over this bank, is usually from northwest to southwest, its course, as well as force, being more or less influenced by the wind. But little is known of the abundance of the cod here, as the fishermen prefer to go to grounds that are better understood than to stop on this.

Since 1875 halibut have generally been found very abundant in the winter and spring and sometimes, even during the summer, in from 75 to 300 fathoms, along the edge of the ground between the Grand and

Saint Pierre Banks, which is near the southern part of Green Bank. This locality appears to be a feeding-ground in winter, and during the spring is in the direct line of the route followed by the halibut that are migrating from the Grand Bank to other places farther north, and at this season it is not uncommon for immense schools to make their appearance, moving leisurely along the edge, perhaps in some cases only a very little for several days at a time, and again more rapidly. The only vessels fishing for halibut at this place are from Gloucester, Mass.

GRAND BANK.

Considered either as to area or with regard to the extent of its fisheries, the Grand Bank is by far the most important fishing-ground in the Western Atlantic, if not in the world. It lies south and east from Newfoundland, is triangular in form, with sides nearly equal, one of them facing the east, one the south and west, and the other to the north and west. The north and east sides are each about 264 miles in length, and the other is 225 miles from the southern to the northwestern limit. It extends over more than four degrees of latitude, from $42^{\circ} 57'$ to $47^{\circ} 02' N.$, and nearly six degrees of longitude, from $48^{\circ} 22'$ to $54^{\circ} 16' W.$.

The most remarkable shoals are the Virgin Rocks and the Eastern Shoal Water. The former are a number of rocky hummocks, severally known as the Main Shoal, Portuguese Shoal, the Haycocks, and the Eastern Shoals. On these the depth is from 4 to 25 fathoms, while between them it is from 40 to 50 fathoms. One or two of them break in rough weather, and though not very large, are at such times dangerous to passing vessels. They lie between $46^{\circ} 25'$ and $46^{\circ} 30' N.$ latitude and $50^{\circ} 31'$ to $50^{\circ} 58' W.$ longitude. The Eastern Shoal Water extends from about the fiftieth meridian nearly to the eastern edge of the bank and from $43^{\circ} 50'$ to $44^{\circ} 50' N.$ latitude. The depth of water is from 22 to 30 fathoms and the bottom is chiefly sand, but with some patches of rocks or gravel. With the exception of the shoals already mentioned, the bottom is generally level, the depth being from 30 to 50 fathoms, excepting in the whales deep, near the western part of the bank, where there is from 52 to 67 fathoms on a muddy bottom. The Grand Bank may be considered as a vast sandy plain in mid-ocean, but notwithstanding this is the general character of the bottom, there are extensive tracts where it is either composed chiefly of rocks and gravel or where these occur in patches of more or less extent.

There is perhaps less current here than on any other of the banks, and oftentimes for days and weeks together it may be scarcely perceptible. This is generally the case during moderate weather, but a continuance of strong winds usually makes some tide.

The principal food-fish taken here are the cod and halibut. Haddock, cusk, and hake are rare. There are a few cod ("ground keepers") in winter, but the best season is between the first of April and the first of November. The Grand Bank is essentially a feeding-ground for the

cod, which find there not only an abundance of shell-fish and crustacea of various kinds, but mollusks and several varieties of small fish that they are especially fond of. The appearance of large schools of cod at the same time with certain kinds of bait, for instance the capelin and squid, has caused these to be known to the fishermen as the "capelin school" and the "squid school." The spring fish, which feed largely on the bottom, and to some extent on lant, are at first found the most abundant on the southern part of the bank, but later spread over a large area. The capelin school comes in May and June, and at that time fish are found more or less plentiful all over the bank, although the locality between the latitudes of $44^{\circ} 00'$ and $45^{\circ} 15'$ and that east of the Virgin Rocks north of the forty-sixth parallel are the most generally resorted to by trawl fishermen, while the dory hand-liners gather about the Virgin Rocks, which is a favorite place for them at that season. The squid school appears in July and is found on the same grounds as the capelin school. Indeed, it is quite probable that it is made up chiefly of the same fish, their numbers increased, perhaps, by some new accessions. For several years but comparatively few cod have been taken after September. Cod-fishing on the Grand Bank dates from the earliest settlement of America. The halibut fishery, however, is of comparatively recent date. This was begun in 1865, at which time, and for several subsequent years, halibut were found very numerous on the bank. At first they were taken almost wholly on the Eastern Shoal Water, later on other parts of the bank, and since 1875 principally in the deep water along the western edge, where immense schools have been found in the winter and spring, and, though less frequently, sometimes in summer. During the early part of the year the halibut usually do not remain long in one place, as many of the schools perform their migrations at that season. The summer schools, however, are generally spawn fish and move but little.

A large fleet of French vessels of various rigs, but mostly brigs and barks, resort to this bank to engage in the cod fishery. Besides these there is a fleet from the British provinces and another from the United States, the whole aggregating several hundred sail, with crews numbering many thousands of men.

FLEMISH CAP.

Although the Flemish Cap is quite large, but comparatively little is known of it, and its boundaries are not fully defined on any of the charts. It is the most northern of the large fishing banks in the Western Atlantic, being located between $46^{\circ} 36'$ and $47^{\circ} 59'$ N. latitude and the meridians of $44^{\circ} 06'$ and $45^{\circ} 25'$ W. longitude. The extreme length is therefore 83 miles and width 53 miles. The bottom is broken into patches of more or less extent of mud, rocks, pebbles, gravel, and sand. A slaty rock is the most common on that part of the bank resorted to by fishing vessels. The depth varies from 73 to 155 fathoms.

Cod and halibut are the only fish taken as an object of pursuit. Owing to the bank being situated so far to the north and east nothing is known about the abundance of fish in the winter season. Indeed, all that is known of them is in the period between the last of April and the first of August. In the spring and early summer cod and halibut have been found in great abundance. During the spring, however, the weather is often so rough that fishing can be carried on but a small part of the time, and after June the ground is so much infested with ground-sharks that the trawls are soon destroyed. Besides this there is more or less danger from drifting icebergs, which are often seen in great numbers. All these causes combined have hindered most of the fishermen from making any attempt to fish there. The only vessels known to have visited this bank for cod and halibut are a few from Gloucester, Mass., and this has never been done until within a few years.

COD FISHING-GROUNDS IN THE BAY SAINT LAWRENCE.

The cod fishing-gounds in the Bay Saint Lawrence are comparatively of little importance except to the fishermen of the British Provinces. But few American fishermen go there, as the ocean banks are generally preferred by them. There is little difference between the depth of water and character of the bottom of the banks and elsewhere, and therefore the whole bay may be considered as a cod fishing-ground, with from 10 to 60 fathoms of water, and bottom generally rocky but somewhat diversified with areas of greater or less extent of sand, gravel, or mud. The only places of which special mention need be made are Bradelle Bank, Orphan Bank, "Pigeon Hill Ground," and "Miscou Flat."

Bradelle Bank is in a northeasterly direction from the North Cape of Prince Edward Island, and in a direct line between that and the northern Magdalen Islands, the SW. edge being 22 miles from the former headland. It is 36 miles long and 24 miles wide.

Orphan Bank is north of Bradelle. The center bears ESE. from Point Miscou, from which it is 47 miles distant. It is 36 miles long NE. and SW., and 15 miles wide, with a depth of from 10 to 30 fathoms, and bottom of rocks, coral, and sand.

Pigeon Hill Ground is the shore soundings that lie southeasterly from Shippegan Island at a distance of 10 to 20 miles, and extends in the direction of the coast about 18 to 20 miles.

Miscou Flat is a stretch of rocky shoal ground that makes out from Point Miscou about ESE. nearly twenty miles. There is from 10 to 22 fathoms of water, the ground gradually sloping toward the outer part.

On all these grounds cod-fishing is pursued only during the warmer season, from May to October. The abundance of cod, especially of the large fish, varies somewhat with different seasons, their presence in greater or less numbers being governed to a great extent by the amount of bait-herring, mackerel, &c., on the ground. The fishing is largely car-

ried on by the local residents in small boats, although some Nova Scotia vessels, and a limited number from the United States, sometimes engage in it.

FISHING-GROUNDS NEAR THE MAGDALEN ISLANDS.

The cod and halibut grounds about the Magdalen Islands are at present of little importance to American fishermen. Since the introduction of trawl-fishing it has usually been found that better results could be obtained elsewhere. These grounds are rocky patches, and generally of limited extent, with comparatively shoal water and sharp bottom. They occur all around the islands, but are not of sufficient importance to make a special description necessary. A few trips of halibut have been taken on the shoal about Byron Island, but the appearance of these fish is so uncertain in that locality that the halibut catchers rarely go there. The fishing is done almost wholly in the small boats of the resident fishermen, and by the small vessels belonging to the British possessions and at the French islands of Saint Pierre and Miquelon.

CAPE NORTH FISHING-GROUND.

Around the northern part of Cape Breton Island, at a distance varying from 4 to 15 miles from the land, is a fishing-ground that is of considerable importance for a few weeks in the spring and early summer. This lies between Cape North and Saint Paul Island, and extends westerly about 15 miles, and southwesterly along the coast as far as Limbo Cove. The land is bold and high, with steep shores, so that notwithstanding the close proximity of the fishing-ground the depth of water on it is from 65 to 100 fathoms. The bottom is mostly tough clay, but 10 or 15 miles from the land there are some rocky ridges. The current sets out of the Gulf of Saint Lawrence toward the southeast, although the direction in which it runs in the vicinity of Cape North changes more or less in conformity with the land. The strength is increased by strong westerly winds, and after a long continuance of these, the current sometimes runs 3 or 4 miles an hour. As a general thing, however, the tides run slowly. About 1860 and 1861 cod and halibut were found in abundance, but later the halibut seemed to disappear, and for several years have been taken only occasionally. The cod are still found quite plenty in May and June, at which time they are moving slowly in by the headland on their way to the shoaler grounds in the bay of Saint Lawrence. The fishing is often obstructed by floating field-ice, which sometimes prevents the vessels from reaching the ground until late in the season. This place is resorted to by provincial and American vessels, but owing to the difficulties that have been alluded to, the fleet is usually small.

THE GREENLAND HALIBUT BANKS.

Mr. N. P. Scudder makes the following statement about the grounds in Davis Strait which are resorted to by the halibut fishermen of Gloucester :

"The fishing banks are 15 to 40 miles from the coast, and, if we can rely upon the Danish charts, extend from Disko Bay to within 3° of Cape Farewell ; for these charts give soundings all along the coast between these two points. Extensive as the banks may be, only a small part of them, the part about Holsteinborg and Cape Amalia has been tried by American fishermen. That the fish are to be found throughout the whole extent is more than probable ; for the species is identical with that taken on the Grand Banks, and we would naturally infer it would be found in all favorable situations within the limits of its distribution. It is also reported that Capt. Rasmus Madson, commonly known as 'Captain Hamilton,' who has been to Greenland several times, set his trawls for these fish farther to the south (probably off of Godthaab) and found them very abundant, but was unable to secure many on account of the numerous ground-sharks playing the mischief with his trawls.

"The depth of water on the banks is from 15 to 90 fathoms.

* * * At the inner edge the banks have a sudden slope, leaving a long submarine valley, the depth of which I did not ascertain, between them and the mainland. The surface of the banks is varied, though generally rocky, with here and there sandy and clayey spots. The character of the fauna varies considerably and often abruptly in places a little distance apart. * * * The halibut were also more plentiful upon the edge than any other part of the bank. * * * It will readily be seen from the preceding remarks that a careful survey of the banks, with the view of determining their limits, character, and fauna, could not fail of being of great use to the fishing interest, to say nothing of its immense importance from a natural history and geological point of view." (Report U. S. F. C., 1880, pages 193-4.)

Besides the banks that have been described there are many small patches, generally some part of the shore soundings, along the coast from Florida to Maine which are resorted to by small boats and also by larger craft. Although these fishing-grounds are important in the aggregate there are none of them sufficiently large to require a special description in this place.

Mention should also be made of some of the more noted inshore fishing-grounds of the north. Among these, perhaps the most important is the Strait of Belle Isle, though at present this locality is rarely visited by fishing vessels of the United States. The inshore halibut grounds, along the shores of Anticosti Island and the coast of Lower Labrador, were important for a few years, 1870 to 1874, but have seldom been visited since 1875, the few trips that have been made to those localities since that period being usually unremunerative. Other inshore

localities, which are no longer good grounds for halibut, might be mentioned, but it may suffice to say that at present the only place where halibut are found abundant near the shore is on the west coast of Newfoundland.

THE MACKEREL FISHING-GROUNDS.

The principal fishing-grounds for mackerel (*Scomber scombrus*) are along the coast of the United States north of Cape Hatteras and in the Bay and Gulf of Saint Lawrence. The ordinary range of the mackerel on the American coast is between the parallels of 35° and 52° N. latitude. Instances have been recorded of their appearance north and south of these limits, but all the evidence goes to show that their presence in those waters is exceptional. The extent of the fishing-grounds on which mackerel are commonly caught is considerably less than that first mentioned, since they are rarely taken south of the thirty-seventh or north of the fiftieth parallel of north latitude, and the best obtainable evidence shows that the average southern limit of the first catches in the spring is about $38^{\circ} 00'$ N. latitude.*

The most northern localities where mackerel have been found abundant by fishermen who were seeking them (this is by no means a common occurrence) are the Seven Islands, $50^{\circ} 05'$, and Mingan Islands, $50^{\circ} 14'$ N. latitude, both of these groups of islands being situated near the coast of Lower Labrador.

Mackerel appear on the coast of the United States early in April—very rarely in March—and until the middle or last of May the fishing-ground for them is along the coast from off the capes of the Delaware to the South Shoal of Nantucket, advancing northwardly with the season and at varying distances, say from 3 to 60 miles, from the land. From June to September the best grounds for these fish are off the coast of Maine. Sometimes they are caught in the bays, some distance inside of the outer islands, but more generally from 5 to 70 miles offshore. Large schools of mackerel frequently appear on George's Bank in the summer, and it is not uncommon for that to be one of the favorite grounds for these fish during a large part of the season. When the autumn migration of the mackerel takes place, which is generally in October, and continues sometimes through November, they begin to move southward; the fishing-grounds, of course, change (the vessels follow-

* The journal of schooner Alice, of Swan's Island, Maine, records the fact that the first mackerel in 1879 were caught in $37^{\circ} 50'$ N. latitude and $74^{\circ} 03'$ W. longitude. The first catch of the Alice in 1878 was in $38^{\circ} 38'$ N. latitude.

The journal of schooner Augusta E. Herrick, of Swan's Island, records first mackerel taken in 1879 in $37^{\circ} 57'$ N. latitude and $74^{\circ} 22'$ W. longitude.

First mackerel taken by schooner John S. McQuin, of Gloucester, in 1879, in $37^{\circ} 42'$ N. and $74^{\circ} 13'$ W.

First fish by Charles Haskell, 1879, in $38^{\circ} 03'$ N., $73^{\circ} 57'$ W.

First fish by schooner Albert H. Harding, 1879, in $38^{\circ} 08'$ N., $74^{\circ} 30'$ W.

First fish caught by schooner John Somes, in 1833, was in $38^{\circ} 21'$ N. and $74^{\circ} 12'$ W.

ing the schools) from the coast of Maine to Massachusetts Bay and the waters off Cape Cod. They have never been followed far south of Cape Cod when leaving the coast, the inclemency of the weather at that season generally preventing such an undertaking. It should, however, be said that mackerel have been found for the past few years quite abundant and of large size during the entire summer season and quite late in the fall, in the vicinity of Block Island.

We will now consider the more eastern or northern resorts of the mackerel. Toward the latter part of May, about the time when the southern wing of the great army of mackerel is approaching the waters of Cape Cod, another body, which may be called the northern wing, and which would appear to be distinct from the other, sweeps in past the island of Cape Breton and enters the Bay of Saint Lawrence. The mackerel make their appearance in those waters late in May or early in June. These are, however, apparently but the vanguard of the schools of fish that follow, and which are undoubtedly part of the same body of fish that first makes its appearance on the coast of the Middle States. During the month of June large quantities of mackerel are moving along the coast of Nova Scotia and passing through the Gut of Canso into the Bay of Saint Lawrence. Many fish are caught in nets, seines, and pounds while these migrations are taking place, and also during the fall when the mackerel are returning over the same track on their way south, and therefore the coast of Nova Scotia for a brief season in the early summer and late autumn may be considered a fishing-ground for mackerel, although the fishery on that coast is carried on exclusively by residents of the Province. Of the Bay of Saint Lawrence it is only necessary to say that from early in June to October, seldom later, this is a well-known habitat of the mackerel, though since the universal adoption of the purse-seine by the mackerel catchers much better fares have been obtained on the coast of the United States, and as a rule trips to the bay have resulted in loss. This is partly due to the mackerel being less abundant and of a poorer quality than formerly, but in a greater degree to the difficulties of seining on grounds where the water is generally shoal and the bottom foul. In conclusion, mention should be made of the fishing-ground off the east side of Cape Breton Island, in the vicinity of Sidney, where mackerel have occasionally been found abundant; Sable Island, where they were found quite numerous and of large size for one or two seasons, about 1853 and 1854; and the west coast of Newfoundland, where they have been known to occur at irregular intervals and where at least one trip has been obtained by an American schooner.

B.—THE FISHERY MARINE.

Important changes have been made in the models of fishing vessels during the last half century, and in the appliance of labor-saving apparatus to their rig and fittings. Although these improvements have

contributed much to the comfort and safety of the fishermen as well as to the success of the fisheries, it will, perhaps, suffice for the present purpose to allude very briefly to the vessels of former days, some of which may yet be occasionally seen, particularly in the shore fleet of Eastern Maine.

The "bankers" of the last century and the beginning of this were narrow, straight-sided, square-sterned schooners, with high quarter-decks, and very bluff—nearly square—bows. They were short-masted, consequently having but a small spread of canvas, and were extremely slow sailers. These vessels were usually from 40 to 75 tons, carpenters' measurement. The Chebacco boats, or "ram's-head boats," as they were sometimes called, which at that time were employed in the shore fisheries, were of small size, 10 to 20 tons, and were generally sharp aft, with two masts and no bowsprit. Next came the pinkie and the square-stern schooner with low quarter.* About 1845 the "half sharp" schooner made its appearance, and from this date rapid changes were made, and a few years later, about 1850, the "sharp-shooter" (as the clipper schooner was at first called) was introduced.

The fishing vessel of the present time is the embodiment of the combined and intelligent efforts of fishermen and builders through a long period of years, and as a result we now have the schooner-rigged clipper, with broad beam, a large spread of canvas, and possessing excellent sailing and sea-going qualities. Although there is a general resemblance to each other among the vessels composing the fishing fleet, certain changes in the rig and slight differences in the model are sometimes rendered necessary for their better adaptation to certain branches of the fisheries. Nearly all of the larger class of vessels are, however, constructed on a model which is well adapted for any fishery, and it is only the so-called market boats, which are usually of smaller size, and a very few vessels built for the mackerel fishery alone that differ from the rest; these are usually very sharp, and sometimes not so deep as the others, large deck room and swift sailing being the qualities most desired. There are, however, considerable differences in the rig. These are rendered necessary by the changes in the seasons, it being evident that in some branches of the fishery where speed is a special object a larger number of sails can be carried in the summer, when light winds are prevalent, than during the winter months, when heavy gales are frequent. The winter rig of the vessels employed in the George's cod-fishery is the lightest of any. To fit them for a winter trip the maintopmast is sent down, and they then carry but three sails, namely, mainsail, foresail, and jib: In the spring, when there is no longer a probability of meeting heavy gales, the topmast is replaced, and they then carry a staysail, and some have also a gaff-topsail.

* Although sloop-rigged vessels have been and are still employed in the fisheries, these form but a comparatively small part of the fishing fleet, the schooner rig having always been a favorite one with our fishermen.

The summer rig of the Georgesmen, that has just been described, is the same as the winter rig of the vessels that are employed in other branches of the fisheries; for instance, the bank halibut fishery, the haddock fishery, and the shore cod fishery. In summer nearly all of the bankers and mackerel catchers have flying-jibs. Many of the latter class of vessels, and also a few of the halibut catchers, have a foretop-mast, and carry, in addition to the sails that have already been mentioned, a fore gaff-topsail and balloon-jib. A vessel rigged in this manner has eight sails, and resembles a yacht in appearance; a schooner of 75 tons will spread nearly 1,300 yards of canvas. The necessity of making rapid passages to and from the fishing-grounds, and moving swiftly from place to place in pursuit of fish, renders it necessary to have a large amount of canvas to improve the prevailing light winds of summer.

The size of the vessels engaged in the fisheries varies from 5 to 193 tons, although there are but few that are more than 110 tons. The fleet engaged in shore fisheries is composed of vessels of the smallest class, from 5 to 50 tons, the average being about 20 tons. A portion of these, more particularly on the east coast of Maine, are old-fashioned vessels—a few of them are pinkies—and are not employed except during the season when fine weather may be expected. The greater part of the shore fleet, however, are the best class of small-sized vessels, and many of them are employed in fishing at all seasons. Many of these pursue the cod and haddock fisheries in winter. In summer the small vessels engage in many kinds of fishing, changing from one to another, and following whatever promises the best results at the time.

The winter haddock catchers are usually all first-class vessels varying in size from 25 to 80 tons, averaging about 50 tons. Many of these vessels are among the finest in the fleet, and the majority of the larger ones are generally employed in the mackerel fishery in summer. While the smaller haddock schooners do not go farther than 30 or 40 miles from the land, and usually a much shorter distance, the larger ones make trips to George's and Brown's Banks, and occasionally even farther east.*

The Georgesmen are all first-class vessels, averaging a little more than 60 tons, the extremes being from 40 to 85 tons. These vessels, like all others that are employed in the winter fisheries, are heavily ballasted with rocks or iron (generally with the former); the ballast is covered with planks, which are fastened down in the most secure manner. Above this platform the hold is divided by bulkheads and partitions into sections or pens, in which the fish are packed away in ice, or salted. Although the vessels undoubtedly fish on George's Bank the greater

* Trips are made to the western part of Nova Scotia, and during the winter of 1880-'81 many of the large vessels went as far as Le Have Bank, where haddock were found in great abundance, some of the vessels getting as many as 500,000 to 600,000 pounds each during the winter, most of which were caught on this bank.

part of the time, they also make trips to Le Have Bank, Brown's Bank, Seal Island Ground, German Bank, and occasionally to some other grounds. A few trips have been made as far east as the Western Bank (Western Bank and Le Have trips are usually made in December and January), and as far south as Block Island, but only at rare intervals.

The greater part of the vessels composing the mackerel fleet are clipper schooners, many of them being equal in appearance and sailing qualities to first-class yachts. It has already been mentioned that some of them carry a great amount of light sail, but while this is true of the larger vessels and for some others, there are a few of the smaller ones that have no flying-jibs. The average size of the mackerel catchers is about 60 tons, the extremes being from about 20 to 151 tons. There are few, however, over 100 tons; and the largest one is a three-masted schooner.

The bankers average larger than the vessels employed in other fisheries. Few are less than 60 tons; the average size is about 75 tons; while a small number are more than 100, and the largest, a three-masted schooner, is 193 tons. The fleet is composed chiefly of the finest class of sea-going vessels, and this may especially be said of those employed in the bank halibut fishery. There are, however, a few old-fashioned schooners that make trips for cod in summer. The salt carried by the cod-fishermen serves for ballast, and this is stowed in "pens" or bins in the hold. The halibut catchers and a few other bankers are ballasted like the Georgesmen, though perhaps not so heavily, the ice and salt they carry making up the deficiency. The fishing-grounds visited by the bank fleet extend from Le Have Bank to Davis Strait, although the Grand Bank, Banquereau, and Western Bank are the principal ones.

The vessels of the New York market fleet belong chiefly to the ports on Long Island Sound. They differ in some respects from the vessels of Northern New England, as they are, with the exception of the halibut catchers, nearly all welled smacks, and a considerable portion of them are sloops. The smacks take the greater part of their catch to market alive, preserving, however, the dead fish in ice. The vessels engaged in the halibut fishery are arranged somewhat similar to those already mentioned, and the fish are kept in the same manner, namely, by icing them. Although there is not so large a proportion of extremely sharp vessels in the New York fleet as in the fishing fleet north of Cape Cod, there is, nevertheless, a general resemblance between the schooner-rigged vessels and those of Massachusetts. The average size of the market smacks is about 40 tons, the extremes being 20 and 65 tons. The smacks fish from Cape Henlopen to George's Bank, principally on some part of the shore soundings, catching cod, haddock, &c., in the winter, and besides these several other varieties in summer. The halibut catchers go farther east on George's Bank and adjacent grounds. The few vessels employed in the southern coast fisheries belong to the same class as the smacks that have been mentioned; indeed the greater part of them were built in the ports of Long Island Sound.

The next to be considered are the open boats, of which there are a great many kinds, a few only of which, the more notable forms, can be mentioned here.

The sharp-stern fishing-boat is more universally used in the coast fisheries than any other, and to show how widely these are distributed along the coast it is only necessary to mention that the boats of Block Island and No Man's Land, the "five-handed" boat of Cape Cod and the coast of Maine, and the "quoddy" boat of Eastport, belong to this class.

One of the most peculiar fishing-boats on the coast is the cutter-rigged sloop, used exclusively by the Irish fishermen of Boston. These are said to resemble the fishing-boats of Ireland, and are generally called "Dungarvan boats" by other fishermen. The length varies considerably, the average being about 30 feet on top. They have a reasonably sharp but rounding bow, square stern, with the rudder hung outside; are deep in proportion to their length, with a wide stem and deep keel. They are said to be excellent sea-boats. The forward part is decked over, thus forming a *cuddy* where the crew eat and sleep. There is a cockpit aft, with a seat around it. The midship section is partially covered on each side. In the bottom of this is placed the ballast, on top of which the fish, gear, &c., are stowed. The bowsprit is adjustable, and two jibs are carried, one being set on a stay, the lower end of which fastens to the stem. In other respects they do not differ materially in rig from other sloops. In spring, summer, and fall these boats are employed in the cunner, haddock, and other fisheries for Boston market, the catch being chiefly sold fresh. In autumn most of them engage in the herring fishery with gill-nets at Cape Ann and other points in Massachusetts Bay.

The dory, which is so well adapted to the deep-sea fisheries, and is quite indispensable to our bank fishermen, originated during the latter part of the last century in Salisbury, Mass. This boat was originally designed for a lighter, and for many years was scarcely used for any purpose besides that of removing the cargoes from vessels at Newburyport. It was, however, employed to some extent in the fisheries early in the present century, and since the introduction of trawl fishing it has come into general use. The thwarts are adjustable, and, when these are removed, several dories may be "nested" inside of each other, the whole occupying the same space as one boat, and for this reason they are much better adapted for stowage on the deck of a vessel than any other style of boat. In addition to this, they are excellent boats in a rough sea, are capacious, light to handle, and also cheap; therefore it follows, as a matter of course, that they are extensively used in most of the important fisheries, among which may especially be mentioned the bank cod and halibut fishery and the mackerel fishery (each vessel with a purse-seine usually carries two dories). Large numbers are also employed on the haddock vessels, the shore fishing fleet, and in the boat

fisheries of the coast. These boats are flat-bottomed, with flaring sides, sharp bows, and V-shaped, oblique, projecting sterns. They are from 12 to 16 feet in length (bottom measurement), different sizes being required for the various kinds of fishing. There is but little variation in the models, although for certain purposes* they are built somewhat wider and deeper than the average.

The seine-boat that is used in the mackerel fishery is a modification of the whale-boat, and is sharp at both ends. It has been found admirably well adapted for purse-seining, as it moves easily through the water and at the same time has sufficient buoyancy to carry safely a large seine while being towed very swiftly by a vessel. The ordinary size of these is 36 feet in length, though a few larger and smaller ones are used.

In addition to the boats that have been described, the following may be mentioned as being, perhaps, the most noticeable: (1) The square-sterned, sloop-rigged lobster-boat of Bristol, Maine; (2) the square-sterned "reach-boat"; (3) "double-ender" (a canoe-shaped boat), both this and the preceding being common on the coast of Maine; (4) the "drag-boat" of Cape Cod; (5) the square-sterned, cat-rigged boat of Southern Massachusetts; (6) the sloop lobster-smack of Long Island Sound; and (7) the surf-boat of New Jersey.

The other forms of fishing-boats are mostly modifications of those that have been noticed, and it is scarcely desirable to make further mention of them here.

C.—METHODS OF CAPTURE OF SEA-FISHES, AND THE CHANGES IN THIS RESPECT IN LATER YEARS.

The different varieties of sea-fish and their varying habits and modes of occurrence involve the necessity of special or peculiar methods for their capture; and the great diversity of implements and processes in use in different parts of the world is therefore not a subject of wonder. For the most part, however, nearly all the methods will fall under the head of the bow and arrow, the spear or lance, the line, the seine, the beam-trawl, the weir or trap; with some subsidiary means, such as the employment of narcotics or poisons, explosives, &c. I shall consider these methods under the foregoing heads.

The bow and arrow.—It is probable that in the pursuit and capture of wild animals our savage ancestry first made use of the hand or foot, the power of running, the strength of arm, and the acuteness of the perceptions, especially those of sight and smell, which in all probability were developed to a very high degree, and in this respect equaling, if even

*Dories built expressly for haddock fishing, where but little rowing is required, are not so sharp as others, carrying capacity being the chief requirement. The same may be said of those used by the fresh-fish companies in the larger fishing ports. A few have been built with rounding sides, but this form has not been so favorably received by our fishermen as the other with straight flaring sides.

they did not sometimes surpass, the most highly favored of the associated animals. Very soon, however, subsidiary apparatus would be called into play, either the throwing of stones or sticks, picked up at random, or the use of a specially fashioned club either for striking or throwing; and ultimately the arming of the stick with an implement for piercing, constituting the spear or lance, and, finally, the discharge of this spear, in a modified form, by means of a bow, constituting the bow and arrow.

It is, of course, difficult to say how soon the arrow and the lance were brought into play. We only know that among the very earliest prehistoric implements are the stone tips, undoubtedly used for this purpose and continued to be employed by the wild tribes down to the present day. The bone and wooden tips, which doubtless were called into play at about the same time, perished, as being constructed of less durable material.

The spear and the bow and arrow constitute very efficient means for capturing fish, in view of the closeness of approach to many species which is possible. No more effective method could be devised for capturing such species as the salmon than the spear, with its modifications of the harpoon, the grains, &c. In sea fishing it is especially such fish as the flounders, skates, eels, and other kinds that fall victims in large numbers to this method. The Esquimaux and the Indians of the northwest coast of America employ the bow and arrow very extensively for the capture of fish of various kinds. There are numerous and varied illustrations of this fact among the collections of the National Museum at Washington.

The harpoon comes legitimately in this series of weapons and has numerous applications. The head is placed at the end of a stiff handle, and sometimes when this is buried in the flesh it slips off, but remains connected by a thong or cord either to the harpoon itself or to a buoy which is thrown overboard. The latter method is most generally employed in the capture of the swordfish. In the whale fishery the end of the line is attached to a boat, which thus serves as a buoy or float. The combination of a torpedo or an explosive with a lance, either kept in the hand or discharged from a gun, is a more recent and extremely efficient method of capture of the large animals of the sea.

The line.—This may be considered essentially under the two divisions of the line held in the hands or at the end of a rod affixed to some object on the shore or to a float of some kind, and having at the extreme opposite end one or more hooks baited, with or without floats, for buoying the hook to a certain height above the bottom, or for showing by its motion the attack of the fish. Here we have the first idea of the hook, either covered with some substance attractive to the fish that conceals its character or simulates small fish and other objects that tend to attract its victims. The use of the hook and line in combination for the capture of fish is of the utmost antiquity in this respect, perhaps little inferior to the bow and arrow. While, of course, the lines themselves

have perished with time, we still have the hooks, sometimes of stone and sometimes of bone, of shell, or of metal, and usually constituting very attractive objects of archaeological research. Usually the barb of the hook is on the inner or concave line. A curious anomaly, however, in this respect, is seen in the hooks of the prehistoric tribes of the coast of Lower California, which, whether made of bone or of shell (sometimes of extreme artistic beauty), invariably have the barb on the outer or convex outline. Sometimes the barb is dispensed with entirely, with or without some device to occupy its place and function.

The hook and line, whether in the hand or affixed to the end of a rod, is the simplest of all methods for capturing fish, and the one most universally employed. Where fish are abundant it will generally take a sufficiency for all ordinary purposes, although where a large market is to be supplied it is not wholesale enough for the requirement. It does not waste the fish as much as other methods, and has especially the advantage of seldom taking those about to spawn, most species refusing, when in this condition, to be allureled by the bait. There are some fish, indeed, which cannot be induced to take the hook at any time, and of course we have to depend on other methods, especially the net, in one form or another, for capturing them.

The trawl-line.—Where fish are needed in larger number than they can be taken by the hand-line, with a given number of persons, and where distant markets, rather than the local consumption, are to be provided for, what is called the trawl-line comes efficiently into play. This term, however, is applied to it only in the United States, where it is sometimes called the "set-line." On the continent of Europe it is known as the "long-line," while in England it is called the "bultow," and one variety of it, the "spiller." It consists of a long line, having fastened to it at regular intervals, usually 6 feet, a succession of short lines, usually about 3 feet in length, and having hooks at the ends. The antiquity of the trawl or long-line is probably very great, the period of its first introduction into Europe not being anywhere a matter of record. It was first used in North America on the banks of Newfoundland for sea fishing by the French. Its introduction to the main land of the provinces and of the United States has been somewhat more recent, although now it is very generally made use of.

According to Captain Atwood,* the use of trawl-lines was first introduced into Massachusetts by a number of Irish fishermen of Galway, who settled on Cape Cod. Their success with this novel apparatus was so great as to induce its immediate adoption by the native population.

There has been a singular antagonism on the part of those who use

* Writing of the occurrences of the year 1843, Captain Atwood says: "About this time we began setting trawls for halibut, as has been described elsewhere." Capt. Peter Sinclair, of Gloucester, claims to have been the first to use trawls in Massachusetts Bay, about 1850, and makes the statement that a man named Atwood, who belonged at Provincetown, and was with him at the time, afterwards introduced the method of trawling in that place.

the hand-line, to the introduction of the trawl, and many accusations have been brought against it, on the score of its destruction of the fish and the injury to the fishing-grounds, in regard to which we shall inquire hereafter.

One proof of the antiquity of the long-line is the fact of its existence in almost the form used by civilized nations among the Indians of the northwest coast of America. It usually happens that aboriginal methods now employed by savage tribes have been handed down from a very high antiquity, and it is not at all improbable that the people of modern Europe simply developed an implement made use of many thousands of years previously by their ancestors.

The trawl-line as mentioned consists essentially of a line of varying length, sometimes, as on the coast of England, as much as 7 or 8 miles, more usually, however, from 100 yards upwards, with short lines of perhaps 3 feet in length attached at intervals of 3½ to 6 feet, each with a hook, but commonly not provided with leads or sinkers. To one end of this long line is attached a weight^t, by means of which it is carried to the bottom. The line is then paid out at the side of the boat, the hooks being previously properly baited, and the other end is weighted and dropped to the bottom also. At each end of the long line is an attached buoy, which, floating at the surface, indicates the location of the two ends. Sometimes, in the case of very long lines, there may be intermediate weights and intermediate buoys, those at the extreme ends in such a case being differently marked for their proper designation.

The bait used on the long-lines varies with the country and the circumstances, the longer lines used in England for the capture of cod being baited almost entirely with the whelk (*Buccinum undatum*), a mollusk or shell-fish very abundant in England, and for the capture of which numerous vessels of from 10 to 20 tons are employed.

The whelk is taken sometimes with the net, more usually by the use of some bait which attracts them into a basket or inclosure, in which they are then lifted out. The abundance of this object in the European waters is very great, as with all its consumption the numbers do not appear to decrease.

In the ordinary boat fishing the long-line is usually baited with the common muscle, the use of fish, such as fresh herring, &c., being much less common than in Northern Europe and in America. The whelk and species closely allied to it are abundant in the United States; but so far comparatively little use is made of them. It is probable that in the search for improved qualities and increased quantities of bait for the capture of codfish this will soon come into play and constitute a very desirable and satisfactory substitute for the other varieties. The clam among the mollusks is more generally employed for this purpose, both the *Mya arenaria*, or soft clam, and the *Venus mercenaria*, or hard clam. There are several other species which are used in large numbers for this purpose, to which reference will be made in another

place. Of course fish may be employed, either herring or mackerel, fresh or salted, as well as capelin, portions of the cod, the lamprey, and, indeed, fish generally; the most appetizing and attractive fish bait for this and other purposes is probably the menhaden or pogee.

The trawl-line reaches its maximum of application and of size in the cod and other white fisheries which are carried on in the North Sea on a very large scale. At Great Grimsby, one of the principal centers of this kind of fishing, the long-lining is prosecuted by means of smacks of about the class and size of those employing the beam-trawl, from 40 to 60 tons, and even greater tonnage. A crew of nine to eleven hands is required to bait and work the lines; and the fish when caught are kept alive as long as possible, in wells. A complete set of long-lines, as used in all these vessels, consists of about 15 dozen, or 180, lines, each of 40 fathoms in length, and carrying 26 hooks on smaller short lines, called snoods. These are placed about a fathom and a half apart, so as to prevent the snoods from becoming entangled with each other. These 180 lines are united into one, forming a single line of 7,200 fathoms, or about 8 miles in length, and carrying 4,680 hooks. Contrary to the practice in Norway, where the lines are set in the afternoon and taken up the next morning, in England the lines are always put down and taken up by daylight; they are "shot" at sunrise or earlier, and taken up before night; sometimes, indeed, two casts can be made in one day. The baiting is generally done at night. A small anchor holds the line steady at every 40 fathoms, with a buoy at each end, and at each intermediate mile, as already explained.*

According to Mr. Holdsworth the use of wells in cod-fishing was first tried at Harwich, in 1712, and soon increased very rapidly, until now it is very extensively employed by many nations. In the work of Holdsworth (*Deep-Sea Fishing and Fishing Boats*) will be found very useful statements in regard to the use of the trawl in England.

As already stated, the whelk is used as bait on the largest long-lines, as any other would be too readily washed away by the rapid tide. The shorter lines, shot from boats, usually in quieter waters, are served by means of the softer muscle, a mollusk, also extremely abundant in the United States. The fish are usually taken alive, and after a puncturing

* Although the British fishermen set longer trawl-lines in one string than the Americans do, they rarely if ever use so many fathoms or such a number of hooks to the vessel as the latter. The greater part of the American "bankers" set more than nine miles of trawl in the aggregate, having 9,000 hooks attached, while the smallest amount would be about two-thirds as much. It should also be borne in mind that it is not uncommon for the American fishermen to set and haul this amount of gear twice a day. The vessels engaged in the winter haddock fishery on our coast have a still greater number of hooks than the cod fishermen. The smallest class of these rarely have less than eight miles of trawl, with 12,000 hooks attached, while all of the larger vessels have, at least, half as much more, and quite a number have twice as many, namely, 24,000 hooks, or about sixteen miles of trawl.—J. W. COLLINS.

of the air bladder by a long needle, they are placed in wells in the vessel and carried alive to market when a cargo has been obtained.

According to Holdsworth (p. 148), there is no reasonable ground to believe that the catch on the coast of England has been diminished in numbers in consequence of the action of the long or trawl lines, the principal means of capture. On the contrary, the same ground has, year by year, furnished an increasing abundance in proportion to the number and size of the vessels employed, the catch being nearly if not entirely as great on any given number of hooks as it was many years ago.

The capture of cod on the Norwegian banks is also made principally by the trawl-line, although the hand-line and the gill-net are also brought into play.

For the purpose of ascertaining the present views of the Norwegian experts charged by the Government with the supervision of fishery operations, I addressed a letter to one of their number, Mr. Robert Collett, of Christiania, Norway, and his reply is herewith presented:

"You ask me whether any question has arisen in Norway as to the greater destructiveness to fish or to the fishing-grounds in consequence of the use of the long-lines. Not at all. I am quite sure the long-line is just used in the 'great cod-fisheries,' particularly in Lofoden Islands and along the coast of Aalesund, *in the spawning season*, and it would be a very bad fishery if the fishermen had nothing but hand-lines.

"I never heard of any putrefaction of the grounds by the fishes breaking off from the hooks, and in the great depths, where the fishery is very good, nothing of that kind would be felt. I never heard of such a thing in Norway, and I could give you an example from the herring fisheries that proves there is nothing probably in this outcry.

"In the year 1834 great herring flocks were caught in a little fiord, Oxlofiord, a branch of Stonfoldenfiord, in Namdalen. By an accident once, the masses could not be taken up from the nets, and several thousand barrels died before they could be used. All these dead fishes were thrown into the water on a very small area in a narrow fiord and covered the bottom with a very thick layer. Notwithstanding, two years later the fiord was again full of fish, and thousands of barrels were caught just on the spot where the fishes had been thrown out.

"As to the nature of the bait, it is partly fish, greatly invertebrates. On the great cod-fisheries in Lofoden, where they are catching the fish from January to March (the spawning season), they use herring. In Finmark they use *Mallotus villosus*, the best bait that is known. (When this fish is in the fiord you cannot get cod with any other kind of bait.)

"Here they also use cephalopods (*Ommastrephes*). In the southern part of Norway, where they catch cod every season, they use *Mytilus modiolus*, *Mytilus edulis*, young *Clupea harengus*, *Arenicola piscatorum*, and *Palæmon squilla*. I have not heard of any other sort of bait. The bait is

always used fresh, and it is only in the case of extreme scarcity of fresh bait that salted herring are used.

"I remember now another fish which they use in the northwestern parts, viz, the *Ammodytes lancea*. These as well as the young herring are used whole, *i. e.*, the whole little fish on a hook.

"ROBERT COLLETT.

"CHRISTIANIA, NORWAY, October 4, 1877."

The winter fishing on George's Bank is entirely by hand-lines, the weather being too inclement to permit the use of the trawl. At the Lofoden Islands, 24 lines, each with 120 hooks, are usually fastened together into one, thus carrying 2,880 hooks, although sometimes, in particular localities, where the nature of the bottom requires it, a much shorter length is employed. As in England, the short lines, or snoods, are between 6 and 7 feet apart. Here, however, the lines are shot in the afternoon, remaining down all night and taken up the next morning. No line can be put down before noon, nor can it remain down after midday.*

Very often a glass ball, the size and shape of an egg, is fastened about a foot from the hook, so as to buoy the bait a few feet from the bottom and make it more easily observed by the fish.

The usual yield of a long-line, with the number of hooks given above, is 240 to 360 fish per day, and it is readily managed by two persons, while a hand-line, worked by one person, rarely takes more than 50 per day, thus showing a marked difference in favor of the trawl. Very frequently the long-line, instead of being kept down for a period of twelve hours or longer, is overhauled much more frequently, especially in comparatively shoal water, where the line is no sooner fairly down than it is again overhauled and rebaited.

Various modifications as to the size and bait of trawl-lines are found in other countries; but what we have already stated will furnish a sufficient idea of the general character and applications of this important item of fishing apparatus.

As already stated, very grave complaints have been made against the long or trawl line in the United States, and legislation or mutual consent invoked either for its entire abolishment or its restricted use under certain specified conditions.

The advantages of this method will readily be understood, as consisting in the much greater efficiency and the much larger yield of fish taken by the same force of men; as also in the fact of the more continued exposure of the bait, in consequence of which fish that are deterred from biting at the hand-line in its incessant motion, or only kept down during the convenience of the fisherman, are more tempted by the bait on the long-line, which is much more quiet and remains on the ground sometimes for a number of hours.

* Baars, Des Pêches de la Norvège; Paris, 1867. H. B., Die Fischerei Industrie Norwëges, Bergen, 1873.

The disadvantages of the long-line, as alleged by those opposed to its use, may be formulated essentially as follows:

(1) It is more expensive, requiring a larger capital, and consequently rendering the poor fishermen unable to compete with the more wealthy in regard to its acquisition and employment. Objections of this kind generally come from the hand-line fishermen, who, however, when able to purchase the long-line, are very apt to forget their former scruples and to use it without hesitation. This change of policy, is excused on the score of self-protection and the necessity of employing methods similar to those of a rival fisherman for the purpose of making a living.

(2) It is sometimes objected that it requires two or more persons to use the trawl-lines instead of one. That a combination of persons should accomplish a much larger result than the aggregate of their separate endeavors is in accordance with the general principles of a sound political economy.

(3) It is asserted that the line is much more liable to be lost than the hand-line. This is said to be caused by the wearing of the line on rocks, although generally the buoys at each end enable the separate portions to be recovered. As a matter of actual experience, however, the expense of lines absolutely lost in this way amounts to a very small percentage of the original cost.

(4) The fish are brought up dead or not always perfectly fresh, and many of them are devoured by other fish, as eels, codfish, sharks, crabs, &c., either while living or after death.

This objection is, of course, one that may be fairly put; but after all, the yield of sound, merchantable fish is sufficiently great to permit an average wastage; and if it be fish killed on the hook and remaining in the water for some time, it is for the advantage of the consumer to have the services of these scavengers in assuring a supply of perfectly fresh fish for the market.

Although these objections will not apply to so great an extent to the hand-line, yet they do attach to the use of the gill-net, and, in fact, to a still greater degree, in both methods a considerable loss taking place. This destruction, however, which has been claimed as involving a wastage of the fish in the sea, is not a question for the consideration of the owner of the line, as an equivalent in weight to the very fish thus consumed while attached to the hook would in all probability have been taken while swimming free in the sea by these same enemies.

The practical experience in trawling, however, is that while some of the hooks are brought up entirely empty, very few hooks have mutilated fish upon them, a large proportion being alive and in good condition, and on being placed in the wells of the smacks are capable of being kept for a long time.

As a general rule codfish in England are sent alive to the markets, and the enormous quantity consumed there and elsewhere is taken for the most part by the long-line. If in consequence of a storm or some

special condition the line be necessarily left down longer than usual, a still larger percentage of fish will be found dead, possibly the entire number. But it must be remembered that this fishery is almost universally prosecuted in the colder waters of the ocean, frequently where the temperature varies from 35° to 42° , which of course serves to preserve the fish much longer than a warmer medium.

(5) The wastage of the fish by dropping off the hook before they can be taken into the boat. This accusation is based upon the alleged practice of using considerably smaller hooks than those required for the hand-lines; and while it is possible that this may happen occasionally, it is quite certain that the fishermen will graduate the size of the hook so as to obviate such a danger, and even if a considerable percentage be lost, as already explained, this is the concern of the fishermen and not of the general public, the fish thus slipping away being consumed by the scavengers in place of live fish in equal bulk.

.(6) The capture of roe or spawning fish. It is difficult to know what weight to attach to this objection, although it is very generally asserted that a spawning fish will bite at a long-line when it will not do so at a hand-line, the fish at this time being much more cautious in its approaches. So far as the cod are concerned, however, and the *Gadidae* generally, it is probable that the force of the objection is lessened by the fact that the long-line is used more especially at the time when the fish are not spawning. As a general rule the cod, haddock, and hake, &c., are known to spawn in the winter months, usually in January, February, and March, sometimes a little earlier and sometimes a little later. It is precisely at this time, when, in consequence of the inclemency of the weather, in North America at least, this mode of fishing is more or less intermittent, consequently allowing the spawning fish a sufficient opportunity for discharging its roe undisturbed. This explanation applies more to the offshore fish, however, as the winter inshore fisheries of the New England coast are almost exclusively directed to outside fish that have come in to lay their eggs.

When we bear in mind the very small percentage of deep-sea fish that can be taken by man at all, and the immense yield of eggs of most of the species (amounting to several millions for each female cod, and others in proportion), we can easily believe that an objection of this kind can have but little weight, even if the fish were harried to the utmost during their spawning season. If, however, as is most probable, they are comparatively undisturbed on many fishing-grounds at that time, the objection falls essentially to the ground.

To the subject of the prolific character of the fish of the sea and the number of eggs laid by some of the more prominent species, reference has been made in another part of this report (page 82).

There is another consideration which may be borne in mind in regard to the so-called lazy or logy cod which cannot be caught with the hook and line. Many of these are in reality past the period of bearing, as

there is every reason to believe that, like other vertebrate animals, after a number of years of service in this respect, the fish, whether male or female, becomes sterile. Sometimes this is the result of sickness or disease; at others the fish is in its best condition for food. A codfish of 20 or 30 pounds is probably as efficient for reproduction as one of 50 pounds, and perhaps more likely to furnish a healthy progeny, able to meet the exposures of the sea.

(7) The long-line fishermen, in their wholesale method of capture, in America, at least, clean their fish at sea and throw the refuse, consisting of the heads, entrails, &c., commonly called "gurry" in America, overboard. This pollutes the fishing-ground and drives away fish for a period of months or even years, and this in connection with the fish that break away from the line on being hauled up, or which are partly devoured at the bottom.

This, with the alleged destruction of fish by the use of the trawl-line, is the objection upon which the opponents rely as the most formidable and as carrying the greatest weight. This will be considered in considerable detail (in another place under the head of Disposal of Offal), as, if established, it would constitute a reasonable ground for regulating this fishery, even by its restriction, limitation, or total abolition.

Bearing now in mind that the objection to the trawl-line is based more exclusively on the injurious effect of throwing overboard the offal of the fish cleaned at sea, the matter of self-interest and the desire to economize waste products will doubtless in time regulate the subject. It is a very significant fact that in Europe, where the practice of trawling has been conducted for many centuries and on a scale greatly in excess of anything of the kind in the United States, and where the same ground has been fished over and over again by a much larger percentage of hooks than is ever seen off the coast of North America, there has never yet been any suggestion of injury from this mode of fishing. The controversy there has not been on account of the interference of the long-line with the hand-line fishing; but it has been in opposition to the use of the beam-trawl, and it never, apparently, has come into the mind of the hand-line fishermen that there was any evil whatever resulting from the other mode of fishing besides the advantage given by the fact of a greater proportionate yield. The drift and purse seine interest, too, antagonizes the beam-trawl, but not the long-line, and it is not to be imagined that any real objection to the long-line would have failed to be brought forward and to excite the animadversion of parties fishing in a different manner.

The largest lines used in America are far inferior to those used in the British seas, where they are sometimes over 8 miles long and carry between 6,000 and 7,000 hooks.

The experiences recorded in such works as that of Holdsworth on deep-sea fishing, and of other writers, all tend to show that notwithstanding the ever-increasing number of long or trawl lines in certain

localities, there is no reason to believe that the fish have decreased in number in consequence, the captures always being proportioned to the increase in the length of the lines and the size of the vessels and their crews. In some cases it is alleged that the cod, in its well-known voracity, swallows the head and backbone of its fellow as it is thrown into the water, and is thereby rendered ill and sometimes even killed by the feast. This can only result from the laceration of the gullet and stomach by the bones, a condition which must ensue very rarely in a fish which fills its stomach with large sharp-edged shells without experiencing any evil effect.

The digestion of fish is very rapid, and it is not an uncommon thing to find that when a fish has been seized by another and is too long to be swallowed entire, the portion near the stomach is digested while the fragment projecting from the mouth is fresh and sound.

Upon the whole, therefore, I am inclined to conclude, from all the considerations and the testimony offered, that there is no actual proof that the use of the trawl or long line in itself is injurious to the fisheries, so far as relates to the driving of the fish away from the grounds. It may render the desirable fish less eager to take the hook, or it may attract predaceous fishes, so as to frighten away the more noble for the time; but that any influences thus exerted can extend over a period of more than a few hours it is difficult to understand. If there be any evil effect, it is possibly from the gurry, but even this I am not willing to admit. This evil, if it be one, will be remedied in our waters, as it has been within a recent period in other cases, by a utilization of this material as a wasted product, the yield or profit therefrom and its conversion into oil or guano being greater than the cost of saving and delivering it on shore. At any rate, before any legislation is invoked, a more careful examination on the ground of the more important regions alleged to be affected should be made by scientific men. The question of refuse matter on the bottom at depths of 15 to 30 fathoms can easily be settled by the use of the water telescope, a well-known implement in scientific research.

In further illustration of the subject, I call attention to the fact that in the investigations in Norway as to the cause of the disappearance of the herring from accustomed grounds, it was maintained that the dead fish, dropping from the gill-nets, or remaining in the meshes of the nets, that had become lost and entangled at the bottom, had produced this state of things. The water telescope was brought into use and it was ascertained that the number of such fish was much less than was alleged and that after being dead one day they had entirely disappeared, and furthermore it was found there had been an entire abandonment of certain localities where the gill-nets had not been used at all, and fish had previously been taken wholly by drawing seines from the shore.

Captain Nathaniel Atwood, of Provincetown, while earnestly combatting the assertions in regard to the injurious effects of the trawl-line upon the fisheries, admits that they do appear to have a positive action on the abundance of the halibut, or at least those of the large individuals which are specially sought after for the market. He thinks that these large halibut are quite likely each to occupy a considerable area of ground, to the exclusion of others of the same species, and that when they are caught, it takes a considerable time for their restoration. He mentions a curious relation in the co-existence of halibut and haddock, the result of the capture of the halibut in the grounds conjointly occupied by them, being a very marked increase of haddock, so much so as to render them almost a drug in the market and reducing the price very materially. This is due to the fact of haddock being devoured in immense numbers by the halibut while present, and their consequent increase when their enemies are captured.*

I have already adverted to the fact that in the course of an extended and exhaustive investigation by Professor Huxley and his associates into the subject of the British sea fisheries, contained in a Blue Book of 1400 pages and involving the answering of 61,830 questions, there were but six witnesses of the entire number examined who made any objections to trawl-lines. One fisherman alone (vol. 2, p. 554, question 24,996) considered it a destructive mode of fishing in itself, his objection being that by using very small hooks they caught too many young fish, which, had they been allowed to grow up, would have furnished a more profitable yield.

One fisherman, in answer to questions 39,994 and 40,389, said he found a difficulty in getting bait of the right kind with which to supply the hooks, although approving of their use.

To No. 40,976, a fisherman replied that the trammel nets, such as he used, were liable to be torn by contact with the long-lines. Another trammel-net fisherman, in answer to question 41,023, maintained that the long-lines frightened the fish away from his net, so that he could not get all that he expected.

The net.—Having thus concluded the subject of line fishing, we come to the second of our principal divisions, namely, that of the use of nets. It is hardly necessary to go into any minute account of this mode of

*Another instance of this mutual interdependence of fish, as asserted by the fishermen, occurs on the coast of Nova Scotia, in this case between the lobsters and the starfishes. According to this the lobsters are destroyed by the starfishes in great numbers, and in the immediate vicinity of the canning establishments where the lobsters are taken and put up there is found to be an appreciable diminution of them from this cause. The starfishes are then said to multiply very greatly. The fishermen insist that the starfishes feed upon sea-weed, and that they devour this in such quantities as to clear the bottom of this cover, and that the food-fishes finding no means of concealment do not resort to what were formerly excellent fishing-grounds. The statement that starfish eat sea-weed is perhaps yet to be substantiated.

capturing fish, as I have already treated it at great length in the first volume of the Reports of the U. S. Fish Commission. I may simply remark that the use of the net extends back to a very remote antiquity, possibly as great as that of the hook and line, if it be not still older. That the inhabitants of the pile dwellings of Switzerland and Central Europe used the net is shown by the finding of many specimens of the netting and the sinkers. The employment of the net by all civilized nations proves that it has been handed down to them from a high antiquity. The seine was used in the pre-Columbian epoch by the Indians of North America, as it is not unusual to find on the rivers and shores large numbers of small rounded stones, notched on two sides, to serve as weights, of precisely the same character as those in use at the present time by the Indians of the northwest coast of America.

The principal forms of the net are the hand or scoop-net, the dip-net, the casting-net, the seine, the trammel-net, the gill-net, the purse-net, and the stake-net.

The scoop-net is familiar to every one. It has various shapes, and is used for landing fish caught with the hook, or capturing fish, particularly the small varieties, penned up in restricted localities.

The dip-net may be considered a modification of the scoop-net, being suspended at the end of a long handle.

The casting-net is largely in use by the Spaniards and Italians, both in Europe and America. This is circular, varying in diameter from 12 to 15 feet. It has leaden balls around the edge, and a long rope attached to the center. This is thrown very skillfully to a considerable distance in such a way as to fall flat upon the water, and dropping rapidly to the bottom incloses any fish that may happen to be beneath it. When the rope is hauled on, the leaden balls at the edge come together at the bottom, so that the net is pursed up when drawn from the water, and the fish are found therein as in a pocket.

The seine is also familiar to all. This is a continuous net, with floats of cork, glass balls, or light wood along the upper margin, and weights of lead or stone along the lower or bottom. Sometimes it has a bag in the center, for the greater facility of holding the fish. This net is sometimes worked from the shore, one end being held on or near it, and the other carried around so as to form a sweep when the two ends are hauled in simultaneously. Sometimes this is dropped in the sea and made to inclose a school of fish. This becomes a purse-net when there is some arrangement for bringing the lower edge of the net together, like the inclosure at the mouth of a purse, so that the fish find themselves closely confined, both laterally and below.

The trammel-net is a very efficient means for capturing fish in waters where dragging is not possible or convenient. This consists of three nets bound together at the edges, the outer ones on either side having a large mesh, and the central one a fine mesh and much fuller than the others. Fish swimming inadvertently against this net pass through

the outer mesh and strike against the finer central net, carrying a fold of it through the large mesh of the net in the opposite side, and thus become pocketed.

The simplest of all nets, perhaps, is the gill-net, which is a webbing of usually very fine twine, made to float either from the surface or carried to the bottom. The fish, unaware of its presence, or careless in regard to it, in swimming against it pass the head and shoulders through the mesh and become entangled and held until removed, or until devoured by some predaceous fish or invertebrate. No mode of fishing is more economical than this, as the capital required is comparatively light. The nets can be managed by a few persons, and it is only the large fish that are taken, the smaller ones passing readily through the meshes.

The stake net will be found described in the report of the U. S. Fish Commission. It comes more properly under the head of weirs and pounds.

The beam-trawl.—The beam-trawl is not used in America for the capture of fish, although it has been a favorite piece of apparatus with the U. S. Fish Commission for capturing specimens of various kinds of fishes and other marine objects. It is, however, extremely probable that at no distant day it may come into use and our fisheries be prosecuted to a very considerable degree by its aid, although hardly to such an extent as it is employed around Great Britain and off the coasts of France, Holland, and Belgium.

It is essentially a large bag-net, the mouth of which is low and broad, and which is dragged along the bottom behind a vessel of suitable dimensions. This is kept in shape by means of a beam of wood resting at either end on iron runners, which hold it up at the proper distance from the ground and receive the friction of the bottom. As these runners are connected above to the beam, at the lower end they are united by a leaded rope, which constitutes the lower edge of the bag. This leaded line is very slack and forms a bend reaching nearly half way the length of the net, which is usually twice as long as it is broad and ends in a long, narrow apex. As it is drawn along the bottom with the tide, the fish, which usually are found lying with their heads towards the tide, are first dislodged by the lead line, and whether they head upward or forward, are met by the upper side of the net, extending behind the beam. By the continual motion of the trawl they are ultimately carried back to the opposite end of the net, and there, getting into the pockets, are prevented from returning.

The size of the beam varies considerably. By an old British enactment the beam was not to exceed 36 feet in length; but it is sometimes now made nearly 50. The length of the net for a 36-foot beam would be about 70 feet, and one for a 50-foot beam would be about 100 feet long. The net is made with meshes of suitable size, and is usually saved from abrasion on its under surface or posterior end by folds of old netting.

The beam-trawl is now used almost exclusively on the coast of Great Britain for the capture of the more important food-fishes, especially of the turbot and sole, few of which reach the markets captured in any other way. About nine thousand tons of fish are furnished annually from this source alone to the London market; and it is not too much to say that without its use it would be impossible to furnish the English markets with fish.

There are other modifications of the trawl in different countries, all, however, on the same general principle of the dragging of a bag of netting along the sea-bottom. Sometimes this is carried under the vessel, where it is used particularly for the capture of whitebait and other small fish. In other cases, as in Spain, two vessels are used. The simplest form, however, that in common use by the English, French, and Dutch trawlers, is as described. This is dragged behind the vessel at the rate of one or two miles an hour, always with the current, and is sometimes kept down for several hours in succession.

Many objections have been brought to the use of the beam-trawl on the score of its exhausting the grounds, destroying the spawn of the fishes, killing great numbers of small fry, &c. A royal commission was therefore ordered to investigate the whole subject of the methods of capturing fish in the British dominions, and to determine whether any of them were hurtful or not. This was composed of Professor Huxley, Mr. James Caird, and Mr. S. Le Fevre, who took up the subject, and after investigating it most thoroughly gave it as their opinion that, so far from being a destructive method of fishing, the use of the beam-trawl was one of the most commendable; that it involved no greater unnecessary waste to fish life than other methods, and less than most; that so far from destroying the spawn of fish, no one could show that an egg of a fish was ever taken in it, especially in view of the fact that cod, mackerel, the turbot, and the flat-fish generally, the eggs of which it was especially accused of destroying in great numbers, all spawn in the open sea, their eggs floating generally near the surface until hatched, and that, consequently, the beam-trawl could have no influence whatever upon them. It was also shown that the actual nesting-places of many of the fish, such as the herring, &c., are among the rocky portions of the sea-bottom, where the beam-trawl could not be used, requiring, as it does, a perfectly smooth, level sea-bottom for its action.

The masses of so-called fish spawn taken up from the bottom by the beam-trawl, has proved, in all cases to belong to one of the lowest forms of sea animals, either the *Aleyonum digitatum*, or so-called dead man'singers, on the English coast, or to the compound ascidian, very abundant in America.

The report of the commission states emphatically as the final result of its inquiries that this mode of fishing has been prosecuted in many localities from fifty to a hundred years, not only without diminishing the supply, but indeed showing increased captures, in consequence of the increased number and size of the vessels employed.

As the beam-trawl can only be used to advantage in the capture of the flat-fish and flounders, what it may take of cod and other fishes constituting but a small percentage of its catch, it is not likely that its use will be introduced into the United States until these fish assume a greater proportional value. With the great number of more or less desirable species of the flat-fishes in our waters there is no doubt that immense catches could be made by this means, and the day is probably not very distant when we shall find trawlers at work along Vineyard Sound and off the coast of New York, New Jersey, and the States farther south. Here there are thousands of square miles of sea-bottom admirably adapted to its use, where a rich harvest awaits its introduction.

Weirs and pounds.—The various forms of this most wholesale mode of taking fish will be found fully figured and described in the first report of the U. S. Fish Commission. I may, however, briefly recapitulate some of the more prominent varieties. These are, the floating trap or madrague, the heart-net or pound, the stake-net, and the weir in its various forms.

These all depend upon the movement of the fish in bands, and are sometimes worked in deep water, in which the apparatus is constantly immersed, sometimes depending upon the retention of the fish which come in at high water until the water runs out, leaving the fish high and dry, or else concentrated in small inclosed pools.

The Seconnet (Rhode Island) traps consist in a succession of inclosures held by anchors, and are similar in general character to the madrague of the Mediterranean. While in America the nets scarcely take anything else but scup, sea bass, tautog, and similar fish, those of the Mediterranean are especially used for the capture of tunnies or horse-mackerel. A corresponding difference in the size of the net and in the thickness of the netting is to be found. The heart-nets, or pounds proper, are principally in use in Vineyard Sound and Buzzard's Bay. In these a wall of netting supported upon stakes extends perpendicularly from the shore and ends in a heart-shaped apartment, the pointed end of which passes into what is called the bowl. The fish, in their movements along the coast, come to the wall of netting and are arrested and turned seaward. Their course along the line of netting brings them to the main inclosure, which is so constructed that in circling round in schools they cannot readily find their way out, owing to their indisposition to turn an abrupt corner. Their only escape is into the bowl, which constitutes a second apartment having a bottom of netting. Here they remain until the fishermen come on the scene, and closing up the narrow entrance to the bowl secure whatever it may contain. They proceed to lift the netting of the bowl in which are the living fish, and throwing away the refuse, the desirable varieties are put in a boat or smack, or else placed in what is called a pocket, another inclosure, in which they can be kept until marketed. Of this apparatus there are many varieties.

The stake-nets are used more particularly in the waters of the Dominion for the capture of salmon. The weirs are more generally to be found on the north side of Cape Cod and on the coast of Maine and the Provincees. In these northern localities their use is principally confined to the capture of the herring. On Cape Cod, however, they take immense numbers of sea herring, alewives, and other species.

Many minor varieties, and some of considerable prominence of both pounds and weirs, are to be met with in different parts of the world. I have, however, mentioned those in more general use in the United States.

Other methods.—The remaining methods of capturing fish most usually employed are narcotics, poisons, and explosives. The narcotics and poisons are essentially of a simple character, in some cases the fishes being merely stupefied, and in others actually killed. These are not used in sea fishing, but many an owner of a trout pond or stream has had reason to deplore the dishonesty of the age in the loss he has experienced in a single night by the poacher who has resorted to poisons for securing his bag of fish. Vegetable substances are generally used for this purpose, some of them of a character very easily obtained. It is not necessary for my present object to mention them.

Explosives as a means of capturing fish have come into use quite recently. The explosion of dynamite and other cartridges by means of a time fuse or a wire often results in benumbing or killing large numbers of fish. It is frequently employed by poachers upon trout or other ponds. In the mining regions of California very great destruction to trout and salmon in the rivers and pools has resulted from this practice. In the sea not unfrequently the involuntary result of submarine explosions, for the removal of sunken wrecks or rocks, is the destruction of great numbers of fish, which show themselves on the surface soon after the explosion. In some cases, as on the coast of California, where schools of fish have been thus exposed, great slaughter has been produced in this way. This method of destroying fish is highly objectionable, on the ground that it kills many more fish than can be utilized, as they are washed away by the tides and lost.

D.—BAIT USED IN THE SEA FISHERIES OF EASTERN NORTH AMERICA.

Baits and allurements.—Having thus presented an account of the more effective apparatus by which fish are captured, I proceed to indicate the more common baits and allurements to the hook or the net employed by the American fishermen. These are of various kinds, the simplest consisting of the naked hook, which by its rapid motion through the water induces many fish to snap at it, and to be caught thereby. The bluefish, bass, pickerel, and many other varieties are caught with a hook having some bright substance forming part of the shank. This may be a piece of bright pewter, tin, bone, iron, or other substance, and presented in the form of a plate, a cylinder, a spoon, or else a screw,

by which a rapid rotation or whirling motion is caused when drawn through the water. Not unfrequently an eel-skin or similar substance is stretched over the shank of the hook, and answers an excellent purpose. A bait of white cloth is sometimes quite sufficient in taking mackerel. The efficiency of a piece of red flannel fastened to three hooks, placed back to back, in taking frogs is well known to boys in the country.

Vegetable substances are not much used, as few fish are attracted by them. Bread crumbs, corn, cabbage leaves, &c., may be employed in the capture of carp and other vegetable feeders.

Animal matter is generally employed as bait to attract fishes to the hook or into a net, other substances being considered of little account in comparison, almost every animal of any kind or description being available to a greater or less extent for the purpose. In sea fishing mammals are not used very extensively. Portions of meat of almost any kind are used by the fresh-water angler for the capture of catfish, eels, the percoids, &c. At sea the flesh of the porpoise and other cetaceans is not unfrequently relied upon for the capture of cod and halibut when other bait fails.

Few persons realize the extent to which birds are sometimes employed as bait in the great offshore fisheries, the banker, when other bait fails, being able frequently to take large numbers of fish by the use as bait of the *Procellaria*, including petrels, fulmars, &c., as also of gulls, murres, &c. Most of these forms are easily caught on the hook, sometimes as many as a thousand birds, and especially of the petrel family generally (*Puffinus major*), have been taken and used for bait by a single vessel on the Grand Bank. The gannets, penguins, cormorants, &c., are also taken in some parts of the world for a similar purpose.

On this subject, Capt. J. W. Collins says: "A few years ago, when many of the Grand Bankers went "shack fishing" and depended to a considerable extent on catching birds for bait, many thousands (mostly *Puffinus major*) were caught and used by the crew of each vessel on a single trip. As these trips were sometimes three or four months in length, and it was often possible for the crew to catch several hundreds in a single day—indeed I have known of one man taking nearly a hundred in a few hours—it will readily be seen that an enormous amount of these birds must have been utilized in a single summer for this purpose."

There is but little, if any, use of the reptiles in the sea fisheries of the United States, although the frog is called into play in certain forms of fresh-water fishing.

The various kinds of marine *vertebrates* constitute the chief portion of the sea-fisherman's bait, partly in consequence of their more ready availability, and partly because the fishes sought for are more accustomed to fish as food, and are more readily attracted to it. The other kinds of bait just mentioned come into play as *substitutes*, but can hardly be considered as representing the regular resources of the North At-

lantic fishermen, and I therefore proceed to a more detailed consideration of the standard articles of supply for bait, consisting especially of fishes, crustaceans, and mollusks.

In the portion of the report devoted to the methods and apparatus of fishing practiced in the Eastern United States and the British Provinces some allusion has been made to the subject of bait for the hand and long lines, but it may be well to review the subject in a more systematic manner, beginning with the enumeration of the following as the more prominent substances used:

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|---|---|
| 1. Menhaden. | 8. Squid. |
| 2. Alewives. | 9. Whelks. |
| 3. Sea Herring. | 10. Clams. |
| 4. Mackerel. | 11. Mussels, oysters, and scallops. |
| 5. Capelin. | 12. Lobsters, crabs, shrimps, and
other crustaceans. |
| 6. Sundry species of less note. | |
| 7. Roes of various fishes, especially
of cod and mackerel. | |

Other varieties of animal substances are used as bait under particular circumstances and in particular localities; but those just mentioned are of most economical value, and the possibility of obtaining one or other of them in greater or less abundance constitutes a very important factor to the fisheries of the mackerel, the cod, the halibut, and other species.

Of the species mentioned, the menhaden is at present peculiar to the shores of the United States, while the fifth, or capelin, is found only about Newfoundland, on the coast and islands of the Bay of Saint Lawrence, and the coast of Labrador. Dr. Gilpin refers to the occurrence of capelin in Halifax Harbor one season; but it is unknown as a regular visitant there, nor has it ever been positively noticed even as an occasional visitant of the Bay of Fundy.

The special details in regard to the natural history and character of the fishes just enumerated belong in the chapter on the natural history and economy of the several American species, and are merely alluded to briefly in this special connection as bait.

In the very great variety of fish bait, and its occurrence at the various seasons of the year at different points, all portions of the United States and the Provinces may be considered as equally well provided in this respect; and although circumstances may render the procuring of this bait in a particular locality a convenience, yet it can be easily shown that whatever be the restrictions upon either country as to particular localities, there can be no question as to the possibility of securing an ample supply in some other, although possibly at somewhat greater trouble and expense.

(1) *Menhaden*.—Of all the species mentioned as used for bait the menhaden is probably that of most importance, whether we consider its wide extent of distribution, its overwhelming abundance along the

coast at different times, or its attractiveness to other fish. Wherever it is met with, at different seasons of the year, from Florida to Penobscot Bay, it is always in request for bait. It is, however, only in the northern part of the United States that it is "slivered" and put up in large quantities either in ice or in salt and carried on distant voyages for the purpose of catching cod or mackerel. There is a peculiar toughness of the flesh and rankness of flavor which seem to constitute an appetizing attraction, not to be resisted by fishes generally, and the possessor of menhaden bait will be able to entice mackerel and cod, striped bass, sea bass, and other fishes, when a fellow-fisherman nearby finds other bait valueless in comparison.

The earliest appearance of schools of menhaden off the coast of the Middle States is the signal for securing a quantity for the cod fishing banks; and until their disappearance from the North they are in constant request, this application of the fish, of course, being entirely independent of its use in the preparation of oil and guano.

(2) *Alewires*.—The two species of alewives, taken together, have a still greater range than the menhaden, being found from Florida to the coast of Labrador, and are, if anything, more abundant in the Middle and Southern States than at points farther north. They enter the mouths of all the rivers from the sea in vast schools, beginning in the early spring in each latitude, and can be taken for a few weeks in any quantity. They can be obtained as early as January in the Saint John's River, Florida, and in March or April in the Potomac, and would, undoubtedly, if other fish were un procurable, be used for the spring cod fishery, serving a very excellent purpose in this respect. It is probable that the numerous schools of adult fish, coming in from the depths of the ocean to the shores in the spring, and of the young that pass out seaward in the autumn draw the larger sea fish into the vicinity of the land, and there can be no reasonable question that the great decrease in numbers of the latter, within the last fifty or one hundred years, has been caused, in large part, by human agencies, which have rendered it necessary to change the location of the fishing-grounds and to greatly limit the capture in ordinary boats of cod, haddock, hake, and the like in the bays and on the shores of New England, which was formerly so extensive and profitable.

As will be shown elsewhere, it is entirely within the power of man to restore, in a great measure, the previous abundance and greatly to improve the general fisheries of the coast.

The attractions of the young shad and salmon are doubtless to be added to those of the alewife and herring in drawing the larger fish towards the shore, but they are of less moment in this respect in view of their inferior abundance.

(3) *Sea Herring*.—Next to the menhaden, and indeed in advance of it in some parts of British North America, is to be mentioned the sea herring, which is to be found in one locality or another throughout the entire

year, the fishes now spawning in one vicinity and then feeding in another. Without the sea herring the fisheries of the northeastern coast of North America would be very indifferent, and it is a subject of great congratulation that it is to be had at nearly all seasons, especially when most needed as bait.

Both the menhaden and the herring are used either entire for baiting the hooks, or chopped up fine in a bait-mill as chum for attracting the mackerel within reach of the hook and line or into the net. The sea bass of the New England coast finds during the summer season the chum of the menhaden an irresistible attraction, bringing them within reach of the angler whenever its influence is experienced.

Menhaden and herring are usually cut in pieces for bait for cod and for many other varieties of fish; only the small herring, "spurling," are used whole.

(4) *Mackerel*.—The mackerel is used very frequently as bait, generally the smaller and inferior individuals, or those less valuable for salting being employed. They are also sometimes chopped up as bait for mackerel when cheaper material is not to be had.

(5) *Capelin*.—Allied if not identical forms of capelin occur on both sides of the North Atlantic, and are everywhere eagerly sought after as bait for cod during the period of its presence. Unfortunately on the American coast it is found for only about six weeks. It is then in overwhelming abundance, coming in for the purpose of spawning, the eggs being sometimes washed on the shore in great windrows, and frequently in the edges of the sea forming beds several inches deep. When perfectly fresh no fish can resist its attractions, and for shore cod-fishing during the season nothing better can be had. It is, however, not considered especially advantageous for the bank fishing. The capelin is kept fresh in ice by the American bankers from 8 to 10 days, and occasionally a little longer. The French fishermen use immense quantities of salt capelin in the Grand Bank cod-fishery, though by Americans they are not considered good bait when salted.

In Norway the capelin is used very largely in the spring cod fisheries of Finmark, and its approach is hailed with the greatest satisfaction by the fishermen.

(6) *Sundry fishes used as bait*.—The sand-lance (*Ammodytes*) may also be referred to as specially useful as a bait, as it can be obtained in certain localities along the coast of the United States and the Provinces in vast numbers, and is frequently used as a substitute for other kinds of bait, and the corresponding European species is equally satisfactory, being used by the fishermen on a large scale. Although less in size than most of the species just enumerated, it can be used entire and constitutes quite a tough, desirable bait. This fish lives mostly in the sand, where it buries itself with great rapidity and is entirely concealed from view.

Other baits are frequently used both in the large and small fisheries,

eels and lampreys, portions of the bellies of cod and mackerel, the eyes of these and other fishes, and indeed almost any form of refuse fish. Dead fish of any kind are also used to constitute bait for taking lobsters.

(7) *The roe of fish.*—There is no question but that the roe of fish constitutes a very large percentage of the food of the inhabitants of the sea, as it is only by the provision for the destruction of the large proportion that particular species are prevented from increasing in undue and overwhelming numbers. It is rarely that any fish can resist the attractiveness of fish roe, the eggs of trout and salmon being used largely in California for this purpose when nothing else has any attraction.

Besides the use of the roe of fishes as food for man it constitutes an important element on a large scale in the sardine fisheries of Europe. The salted roe of the cod and of the mackerel is prepared for this purpose and shipped, to the extent of many millions of pounds, about 9,000,000 pounds of cod roe (worth \$600,000), and one or two millions of that of the mackerel, having been furnished in one year by Norway. Small shipments have been made from the United States to Europe for the same purpose.

These eggs are used especially for attracting schools of sardines into the vicinity of the gill-nets, and for that they are considered almost indispensable.* It is a question whether this same roe could not be employed advantageously in the mackerel fishery as a toling-bait of a more satisfactory character even than the finely-chopped flesh of fish. It keeps much more readily than any other, and its use, if not already attempted, should be experimented upon, as the roe both of the cod and the mackerel until recently has been a refuse product. It is worth considering whether it may not be prepared and used to advantage for the purpose in question.†

(8) *Squid.*—The squid, one of the cephalopods, a group of the mollusks, is also a highly important element in the question of bait for the capture of deep-sea fishes, especially the cod and its allies, and occurs in overwhelming numbers along the entire coast of the eastern United States and of the Dominion. Of this there are two principal forms

* According to De la Blanchère, *Le Pêche et les Poissons*, 1,500,000,000 of these fish are brought into the port of Concarneau alone, this being only one of many from which the industry is carried on in France, Spain, and elsewhere.

† All bait as above referred to is used fresh whenever it can be done. It is, however, preserved in various ways, sometimes by drying, more frequently by salting. The use of ice of late years has come into play very extensively and constitutes a necessary element in most fisheries whether for the preservation of the bait itself or of the fish when caught. For the most part the bait is preserved by keeping ice in contact with it. It is probable, however, as already suggested, that hard freezing may more advantageously be substituted in many cases as being more likely to retain the same attractiveness that freshly-caught bait presents. It is quite probable that by using special apparatus and adjustments the hard freezing may be conducted at very little expense.

equally attractive to the fish, and occurring in very great numbers, the more northern, the *Ommastrephes*, being found about Newfoundland and other portions of the Dominion, and the *Loligo* in increasing numbers from Cape Cod south and westward. They are used either fresh, immediately after being caught, or sometimes kept in ice; being very largely salted, however, in which condition they maintain their attractiveness for about three weeks.* They are usually taken at sea by means of the jig, and inshore the weirs and pounds are sometimes found to contain them in immense numbers.

The squid, of one species or another, is found off the coast throughout the greater part of the year, in Newfoundland more especially in the spring and summer, and on the Massachusetts coast at almost all times. It occurs more rarely in winter, apparently passing off into the warmer waters. It is probable that by exposing the squid to the cold of a freezing mixture and rendering them specially hard, they may be kept indefinitely or until wanted. Among other pounds where squid have been taken in large numbers, that at Waquoit, Mass., captured more than 6,000 in a single day; and at the same pound, the captures for the first twenty-five days in May alone amounted to 35,000. (Rep. U. S. F. C., 1871-'72, page 174.)

(9) Whelks.—As already mentioned when discussing the subject of the long or trawl line as used in Europe, the whelk or *Buccinum undatum* was referred to as the principal bait for that mode of fishing; and although captured every year in immense numbers for use by quite a large fleet of boats and vessels, it still appears to be as abundant as ever. Here we have another indirect illustration of the influence of man in producing a balance of power in the sea, the whelks being notorious enemies of the oyster and other mollusks and destroying them in great numbers. The drain, therefore, upon the increase of the whelk doubtless has a material effect on the supply of these other objects.

In England whelks are taken on long-lines, on the snoods of which the common shore crabs are fastened or threaded, no hooks being employed. When laid down, the whelks seize this bait and, retaining their hold with great tenacity, are hauled up.

Another method of taking them is by means of baskets baited inside with pieces of fish, a net being stretched over the end, with the basket in the center. The whelks enter this, and when the baskets are drawn up, they remain in them.

Shallow hoop-nets, too, are baited with fish for this purpose, and the incidental advantage of their capture, as already stated, is in the diminution of an inveterate enemy of the oyster. Each smack requires

* Squid can usually be kept from 2 to 3 weeks in ice, and for months when salted. While the French use salted squid almost exclusively on the Grand Bank, the Americans and provincials prefer to have them fresh, and use but few salt ones, and those only in the fall when no others can be obtained.—J. W. COLLINS.

as bait for a voyage from fifteen to twenty-five bushels of whelks. These are preserved in bags made of netting and may be kept for a long time in the wells of the smacks. When wanted, the shells are broken and the animals extracted.

The whelk is especially common in the United States from Portland to the Bay of Fundy, and extends to the south of Cape Cod, although rarely. It is usually known in America as the winkle, and is so abundant on the coast of Maine that it could readily be used as bait for cod.

There are many other of the univalves that may be employed as bait, such as the *Busycon* and *Pyrula*, which though seldom used are capable of the same application.

(10) *Clams*.—The clam in its various forms constitutes a very important portion of the bait used on a large scale in the United States and belongs especially to the following species :

The soft clam, *Mya arenaria*.

The common hard clam, *Venus mercenaria*.

The most important of these is perhaps the soft clam, *Mya arenaria*, which occurs in immense numbers along the entire eastern coast of the United States, and is consumed both as food and as bait. For the latter purpose it is collected very largely on the clam flats of Massachusetts and Maine, in some localities the plow being used at low tide to turn up immense numbers. An especially favorite locality is near Ipswich, Mass., where the immense size of the aboriginal kitchen-middens attest the antiquity of the abundance of this species, these being rivaled, however, by the piles of recent shells heaped up by the clam-diggers. About forty barrels of salted clams constitute an average fare for a cod fishing-vessel, and there appears to be no special difficulty in furnishing any number that may be called for, as notwithstanding the demand, the price at which they are sold now is little more than it has been for many years.

The so-called hard clam is more southern in its distribution than the *Mya*, and is less extensively used as bait, in view of the great demand for it as an article of food. On the sea coast, in a small way, however, it is used to a considerable extent.

The hen clam, or *Mactra solidissima*, is also a species which furnishes a valuable bait, and is especially abundant at present in the vicinity of Nantucket, Mass., where large numbers are taken out and used by the cod-fishermen.

In the Gulf of Mexico and the vicinity of Mobile and New Orleans the *Gnathodon cuneatus*, a so-called clam, is also employed largely in the minor fisheries, but has no prominence at all as a bait for the more important enterprises.

According to Mr. N.B. Nutt, collector of customs at Eastport, clams are not collected to any great extent in that vicinity as bait, but they are gathered along the shore from Machias to Mount Desert and sold by dealers at Deer Isle, Booth Bay, and Portland. Forty barrels rep-

resent the allowance for an ordinary voyage of a vessel of from 50 to 75 tons. Of late years clams have been less in demand for cod-fishing, fresh herring purchased near the grounds or pickled herring being more extensively used.

(11) *Mussels, Oysters, and Scallops*.—Of the mussel there are two distinct species, both known under the same name, and, although generically distinct, having a very close external resemblance which prevents their being distinguished by the ordinary observer. One of these is the *Mytilus*, the other the *Modiola*. These are well-known inhabitants of the waters, being found attached in great numbers to the piles of piers, and to rocks, gravel, mud, and any other object to which their byssus will adhere. They are a favorite article of food in some parts of the world, being used largely in Europe for this purpose; but they are less esteemed in the United States. Occasionally very grave inconveniences result from poisoning, of greater or less intensity, being produced by them. In view of the well-known fecundity of the mussel, it may be imagined that the spat in regions where they abound constitutes a very important element in the food of young fish, and the contents of the towing-net are very frequently composed largely of extremely minute mussels, which are greedily devoured by a great variety of species.

The oyster is not often used as bait. It is almost too valuable to be wasted in this way, and is of so soft and delicate a texture as to break away from the hook with but a slight touch.

The common scallop, *Pecten irradians*, which is extremely abundant off the coast of the Middle and Northern States, is largely utilized for food, and only occasionally used as bait for fish.

(12) *Lobsters, Crabs, Shrimps, etc.*.—The lobster constitutes a very attractive bait in the small fisheries; but it is too valuable in itself as an article of commerce, to be employed to any great extent. Frequently, however, young lobsters, not marketable, or falling within prohibited limits of the legal enactments of certain States, are used for capturing shore fishes.

Along the coast of the South Atlantic and Middle States a very favorite bait for the ordinary shore fishes is the common blue crab (*Callinectes hastatus*) a species occurring in enormous abundance, and constituting a favorite article of food, whether as hard or soft shell. This is a great resource to the fishermen, few fish resisting its attractions, especially when the old shell has been thrown off, leaving only a soft skin behind. Diminishing in abundance towards Cape Cod, its place is supplied, thence northward, by what is there called the common crab (*Carcinus mænas*). This appears to constitute an especial attraction to the tautog, and doubtless constitutes its food in the sea in very great part.

Shrimps also are used all along the eastern coast of the United States in sea fishing.

E.—METHODS AND ROUTINE OF FISHERY.

The necessary limitations of space in the present essay require me to defer the consideration of this subject to another occasion, especially as it will come naturally within the investigations of the forthcoming census of 1880.

F.—PRESERVATION OF FISH AND BAIT.

The subject of the preservation of the products of the fisheries is one of very great importance, and is receiving more and more attention every day. In the earlier period of the American Republic the abundance of animal life in the waters was so great that there was little difficulty in taking the needed supply of food whenever it was wanted, rendering the question of its preservation comparatively unimportant. Of course, the methods of salting and drying were in vogue, but the long-continued preservation of fish in a fresh state was of comparatively little consequence. The circumstances have changed very greatly in this respect. The abundance of fish, &c., has diminished to a greater or less extent, while the population of the country has increased enormously. The demand for fresh fish, too, has increased more than in proportion to the increase of population. The great extension of the system of communication with the seaports, both by steamboats and railroads, has been such as to render it practicable to carry the products of the sea fresh to a great distance. The same methods are available both for keeping bait for use in the fisheries as are employed in keeping the products of the fisheries themselves, and it will therefore not be necessary to discriminate between them.

We may consider this subject of preservation under several heads : (1) As fresh, without any special treatment ; (2) as fresh, by means of ice ; (3) by drying ; (4) by salting or the addition of some chemical substance ; (5) by smoking ; (6) that of immersion in alcohol or some saline substance, for scientific purposes, which properly does not enter into the plan of this paper.

Fish may, of course, be preserved for a greater or less time for purposes of food or bait without any treatment whatever, this depending upon the amount of moisture in the atmosphere and the temperature. In the colder seasons of the year of any locality an object of this character can be kept for many days, especially if the entrails are removed, the adherent blood washed from the inside, and the inside surface allowed to dry in some way. In warmer latitudes and periods, however, the flesh corrupts rapidly. The difficulty is that in the tropical or sub-tropical latitudes a fish will acquire a taint of corruption or decomposition within a very short time after the capture; so that even before the boat's load can be landed and subjected to the treatment of salt, or otherwise, it will have passed beyond the stage when this can be applied with any success.

Of course, when fish are taken in cold weather and frozen they will remain in good condition as long as the cold lasts;* and the absence of a definite continuance of this condition suggested the use of ice in some form in the warmer season of the year. The simplest method of using ice is, of course, to lay the fish on it, and thus keeping down the temperature. The more common method of employing ice, however, is to pound it up and arrange it in layers with the fish, one alternating with the other until the given receptacle is filled. This, however, has the very serious disadvantage in the quantity of moisture necessarily held in contact with the fish, the ice melting very rapidly and the fish becoming saturated with the resultant water, from which in time comes an acidity or mustiness of the fish which is not at all palatable. In some cases, indeed, fish will keep better by being immersed in water kept cool by means of floating pieces of ice than when packed away in pounded ice itself. Fish thus treated become unpalatable when kept some time after removal from the ice. About two weeks represents the limit of time during which, under ordinary circumstances, fish may be kept by the method indicated. After that period the fisherman finds that his bait ceases to be attractive, and the necessity for a renewal occurs.

Icing of fish and bait.—The fishermen at New London and Noank, who are almost exclusively occupied in furnishing fresh fish to the New York market, by the exercise of special precaution are able to keep their fish and bait fresh a much longer time than is the experience at Gloucester. They exercise very great care in the preparation of the bait, which is opened and thoroughly washed and cleaned, the adherent blood along the backbone being especially removed.

Their bait pens are in one large apartment instead of three or four smaller ones, as is the practice at Gloucester, and are carefully lined with some non-conducting substance. The bottom is paved continuously with ice, to the original thickness of the block, whatever that may be. On this is placed a layer of fish three or four inches thick, and above this a layer of equal thickness of finely-pounded ice, snow answering a very good purpose if this can be had. On this is another stratum of fish, and then pounded ice, and so on until the whole is filled. The atmospheric air is excluded very thoroughly in this way, and the amount of melting is comparatively trifling. The resultant water is immediately absorbed by the porous layers of pounded ice and held as by a sponge, so that the fish are kept comparatively dry.

In the other method of breaking up the ice with a hammer and sliding in layers over the fish there is much greater exposure to the air, and the water from the melting ice sinks to the bottom and keeps the fish or bait saturated throughout. In this way two weeks is usually

* I am informed that the first to commence the business of freezing herring and bringing them from Newfoundland was Capt. Henry Smith, of Gloucester, in 1856. In 1857 Capt. Sylvanus Smith went into the same business and continued it for some time.

the limit during which bait can be kept fresh, instead of six or eight weeks, as claimed by the New London fishermen, who see no difficulty whatever in carrying enough fresh bait for a long voyage to the banks, supplemented, should it be necessary, by soft clams, and thus obviating the necessity of going into Newfoundland or elsewhere for a fresh supply.

Ice can be applied much more advantageously for cooling fish (independently of freezing them) in specially constructed apparatus, known usually as refrigerators. The refrigerator, however, furnishes the most economical mode of applying cold to the fish. In some cases the function of the refrigerator is simply to prevent an unnecessary waste of ice by melting away, so that a given quantity will last a much longer time. Other forms of refrigerators have a very different function, the simplest of which consist of an arrangement by which a current of cold, dry air is made to circulate through a provision chamber, taking off the excess of moisture and allowing it to be condensed upon the ice itself. This desiccation may be so rapid and excessive as to bring it under the head of "preservation by drying." It is not at present used to any great extent in the sea-fisheries for the preservation, on a large scale, of fish for a long time. This is most effectively accomplished by the hard freezing process, which is destined to take the place of all others before long, as preserving the animal fiber indefinitely, or as long as the freezing is maintained at the proper temperature, and with a comparatively small consumption of ice and salt.

According to Mr. E. G. Blackford, the eminent fish-dealer in Fulton Market, New York, a room, 10 feet each way, or of 1,000 cubic feet, with properly constructed non-conducting walls surrounding it, can be kept in effective operation in the summer weather of New York by the use of 2,000 pounds of ice and 2 bushels of salt per week, with less in colder weather. This would be, for a room of that size, $4\frac{1}{2}$ tons of ice and 9 bushels of salt per month. As, however, all the bait necessary for a trawling expedition to the banks for cod could be kept in a room of half that size, it is likely that three-fourths the amount of ice and salt would be sufficient, or about $3\frac{1}{2}$ tons of ice and 7 bushels of salt per month. With all the fresh bait on board required for a voyage to the banks and the filling up of the vessel, the amount for two months should not exceed at the outside 7 tons of ice. Allowing as much more for wastage, 14 tons would probably be an ample allowance. During 1877 ice cost \$2 a ton at Gloucester and \$12 a ton at Newfoundland.

A patent has been recently introduced to the notice of fish-dealers, by which fish are arranged conveniently in vessels which are filled up with water, and the whole then frozen into a solid cake, and kept in this condition until used. This process is claimed by those interested to keep the fish perfectly fresh indefinitely without the evaporation and loss of savor so frequently found in the dry-hard method.

In freezing animals hard and stiff care must be taken to extract the

heat slowly in proportion to their size. It is a common occurrence for moose, reindeer, and other large mammals when killed in a very cold atmosphere to become putrid internally in a few hours, although the exterior may be frozen stiff. The remedy here is probably immediate disemboweling. It is said that halibut cannot be frozen stiff and dry to advantage from the tendency to spoiling in the interior.

It is not an uncommon thing for fishermen on the banks to renew their supply of ice for bait from the floating icebergs. They do not usually venture on a large berg for this purpose; but generally there are to be found in its vicinity fragments of greater or less size which have been broken off from the main mass and are easily secured. The supply of fresh water, too, is not unfrequently obtained in a similar manner.

Desiccation.—Desiccation, or drying, comes next to cold, either natural or artificial, as a method for preserving fish for food or bait, and, indeed, is sometimes more available. This consists, in the simplest form, in the exposure of the fish, usually split to some extent, to a dry atmosphere or the sun, causing the evaporation of the moisture to a greater or less degree. Sometimes this process is accelerated by the application of artificial heat, which causes a more speedy evaporation of the moisture. A current of air, either warm or cold, made to play over the fish, carries on the work very rapidly. Quite recently the production of this current of dry air by cold has been called into service, and with very excellent results, the flesh not being altered in any way, and the desiccation being rapid and thorough. Of late years artificial processes of desiccation have been multiplied, and are being applied to all forms of marine products, including oysters, clams, lobsters, shrimps, &c., as well as fishes themselves. Of course the use of a similar method for preserving vegetables and the flesh of land animals is familiar to every one. The preservation of bait by drying has not been very general; but it seems probable that when the application of the desiccating process comes to be more economically applied, it can be called into play to very great advantage.

A writer in the Newfoundland Chronicle for September, 1877, speaking of squid bait, remarks that during the squid season, which usually lasts about six weeks, there is no other bait so attractive to codfish, and that even when salted it is preferred by the fish to fresh herring. He suggests that the proper method of preparing the squid so as to be available under all circumstances and at all seasons is to wash and dry it as soon as possible in the sun and without salt. He does not state, however, whether the experiment has actually been tried.

If the bait thus prepared proves to be attractive to the fish there will be no difficulty, if it cannot be readily dried in the atmosphere of New England, in doing this by means of some of the patent desiccating processes.

Considerable quantities of squid are dried on the coast of Newfound-

and, the bodies being first split open and the heads and entrails removed. I secured a few of them in the fall of 1876 and tried them on the Grand Bank, but under such unfavorable circumstances that nothing definite could be learned as to the relative value of squid bait prepared in that manner. The Newfoundland fisher men, however, claim that, when soaked for several hours before it is used, it nearly equals for bait the squid that are just caught.

The method of preserving fish and bait by salting is of course familiar to all, and need not be discussed here to any great length. It will be sufficient to mention that the principal subdivisions consist of salting by sprinkling salt on successive layers of fish, which are piled up in masses, known as kench-curing; of immersion in a saline solution, known as pickling; and of salting for a certain length of time by either of these processes and then drying by exposure to the air and by smoking, all of which have their advantages under particular circumstances.

Salting, etc.—The salt used in the preservation of fish in the methods indicated is, for the most part, the common chloride of sodium, or table salt. The quality of this, however, varies in different regions, some varieties being considered preferable for special applications, and others much less satisfactory.

A very troublesome affection of salted and dried fish is that known as "reddening," where patches of red color make their appearance on the surface of the fish, and rapidly extending, soon render it unfit for food. This is usually met with in the foggy August or dog-day weather. A careful examination of this substance by Dr. Farlow has shown that this redness is due to a minute algous plant abounding in the shallow sea-shores and not unfrequently included in the crystallized salt made by solar evaporation. Its presence is indicated by a slight pink or rosy tint in the salt, and at any rate it appears that fish treated with this salt is more liable to the affection than where the salt is obtained from mineral deposits or else is perfectly white sea salt.

Other saline substances are used in some cases; and quite recently borax, in one form or another, has been warmly recommended as securing the proper preservation of the flesh by the use of a much smaller quantity of mineral matter. A favorite Swedish preparation, called aseptin, used for keeping milk and other animal substances without imparting a saline taste, consists essentially of borax.

Quite recently other chemical substances have been suggested, and among others is one lately communicated by D'Amélio to the Academy of Sciences in Paris. For this purpose the meat, either raw or boiled, is cut into sections (if the action is to be very rapid) and immersed in a solution of citric acid in water in sufficient proportion to render it decidedly acid. After two or three hours the meat is withdrawn and subjected to a moderate degree of artificial heat, or exposed to the air until dry. With the artificial heat the result should be accomplished in an hour, and in the open air in five or six days. This meat can be kept for

years. To restore it to softness and flexibility it is only necessary to plunge it three or four days into fresh water. In time it acquires the hardness of wood, and the fatty portions have a tallowy odor.

Smoking.—A remaining method of preserving fish for food, if not for bait, is that of smoking, which has been used from time immemorial. This consists merely in exposing the flesh, either fresh or after being salted to some degree, to the smoke produced by burning bark or wood. This changes the texture of the fiber apparently by the action of pyro-ligneous acid or some creosote product, at the same time preserving it and giving it a very agreeable taste. The celebrated Finmark haddies consist of the haddock slightly smoked to a moderate degree, not enough to keep them for a long time, but involving a less amount of salt and of smoking than usual. Other fish, of course, are readily prepared in the same way.

G.—DISPOSITION OF OFFAL OR “GURRY.”

The question of a convenient or economical disposition of the offal of fish, especially of the heads and entrails, is a serious matter to the fisherman, especially when the cleaning or preparation for market is conducted at sea. This waste matter constitutes a large percentage of the entire mass (about a third), and what is thrown away every year by fishermen of any considerable fishing station may amount to hundreds of tons. Men fishing in small boats, however, usually have no other convenient alternative.

The objections made to this disposition of offal are of two classes, one on the score of waste, the other on the ground that the capture of fish in that locality is greatly interfered with. In the same connection I may refer to the question of waste of fish by means of the trawl-line, or the purse and gill net. As already mentioned, a severe complaint brought in North America against the apparatus referred to, is that large numbers of fish are lost from the trawl-line or from the nets in consequence of storms or otherwise; and that apart from the waste, these fish falling to the bottom, contaminate the fishing-grounds by their decomposition and drive other fish away, as shown by the inability to make successful catches until after a period sufficient to allow this matter to be decomposed or removed in some manner.

The assertions of injury to the fishing-grounds in consequence of the gurry being thrown overboard or of the number of dead fish dropping from the lines or partly devoured by other fishes, apply most generally to the localities of the capture of the *Gadidae* or members of the cod family, especially the true cod, haddock, hake, cusk, as well as of some other species, including also the halibut and others of the flat-fish family. It must be remembered, however, that these grounds are always in the colder portions of the sea, not unfrequently where the temperature of the water is but little above the freezing-point of fresh water, and always where it is as low as 50°. In regions where such temperatures prevail the year round, the cod and its allies are found

continuously. In others, as in the south side of New England, the fish come in as the waters at the bottom of the sea assume the temperature which they affect.

So far as the cleaning of fish at sea and the throwing overboard of the offal or so-called gurry are concerned, the practice is highly reprehensible in an economical point of view; and as representing an enormous waste of material capable of being devoted to useful purposes, the practice should be frowned down and prevented by legislation if possible.

On the coast of Norway all such materials, which formerly were wasted, are now carefully husbanded and add very greatly to the percentage of the yield of any fishery. Sometimes this material is boiled and made to furnish a large amount of oil and scrap. At others the heads are assorted and dried as a special food for animals. The actual yield of guano alone from the Norwegian fisheries has in a single year amounted to 7,700,000 pounds, a very notable element in the productive resources of the country. Whether this material be injurious to the fisheries or not, its preservation and utilization is too important to be neglected; and for this, instead of enacting a prohibitory law, which could not be enforced, it might be better to offer a bounty or drawback of some kind, in proportion to the amount of this material delivered on shore. In this event, even if the fish were more conveniently cleaned at sea, the refuse might be saved in barrels and put on shore at a convenient point. If the solid parts were for the most part saved, the juices and small particles might be poured into the sea without any detriment.

In regard to the allegation, however, that this offal or the dead fish falling from the hooks, in whatever quantity this may be present, affects the fishing-ground, it is extremely difficult to comprehend how this can have any serious effect. In the first place, the cold water in which the fishes of the cod family occur abound to an enormous degree with marine crustaceans, the self-appointed scavengers of the ocean. These are largely a species of *Gammarus* and allied forms very varying in size and in overwhelming and almost incredible numbers, and their efficiency in their appointed task is so great that a large fish placed in a box or suspended in a bag of netting, will frequently be picked to a most perfect and complete skeleton in from twelve to twenty-four hours; indeed, not unfrequently the fish on the trawl-lines are brought up skeletonized in this way.

The same waters in which these shrimps are to be found abound very largely in lobsters, which are baited by precisely the same offal which is considered so detrimental to the fishing. There are also immense schools of small fish such as cunners, and more particularly the Cyprinodonts, which are as active and prompt in their attacks upon dead matter as the crustacea; as witness the experience of those who find a large and valued bait cleaned entirely from the hook by these smaller fish before it has been down more than a very few minutes. The wolf-fish or catfish (*Anarrhichas*), the sculpins, the sea-ravens, the goosefish,

&c., may also be mentioned among these scavengers, the latter especially finding no difficulty in swallowing entire the largest masses of offal that are likely to be thrown overboard. There is no doubt whatever that all such substances scattered in or floating through the water are promptly seized by the lobsters, dogfish, and other species of sharks, and numerous others of the finny tribe that are always on the watch for such material, and it is altogether incredible that with all these agencies working together there should be any appreciable quantity of dead fish or its refuse left at the end of twenty-four hours.

A large part of the gurry is probably carried off from the grounds by the tides and thus distributed over a wide extent of the sea, the chances of its reaching the bottom and remaining there for any time being still further diminished. Even supposing the skeletons and bones to be thoroughly cleaned and left, and that by their whiteness or other quality they should terrify the fish, another series of scavengers comes into play, namely, the sea-urchins, or sea-eggs. These, which swarm in enormous troops in the same waters, concentrate themselves in a very short time upon a bone and devour it as perfectly as the sea-lice do the flesh, leaving nothing whatever. It has been suggested that these sea-fleas and sea-urchins only carry on their operations in shallow water. This, however, is a great mistake, as the dredgings of scientific investigators in the vicinity of Grand Manan and elsewhere show that no portion of the sea-bottom, even to several hundred fathoms in depth, is without them, and, indeed, if there is any difference it is probably in favor of the colder and deeper water.

The inquiry naturally arises, why, if the chopped fish, including entrails and roe, constitute an attractive bait to the mackerel sufficient to draw them many miles out of their intended course, and dead fish can be used to bait perch pots, should precisely the same material, in not quite so minute a state of division, terrify and drive away the inhabitants of the deep sea? It is, of course, possible that a great abundance of animal matter floating in the water, or for the moment lying on the bottom, may affect the actual fishery in consequence of the preference on the part of the fish to this matter over the more doubtful attractions of a baited hook. This, however, would be only temporary, and the interruption would soon cease. Possibly, too (and perhaps this is a powerful agency), the presence of this offal may attract the dogfish, sharks, and other predaceous species, so that they may drive away the weaker and comparatively defenseless cod.*

*At one time the practice of the French fishermen of throwing overboard the gurry was bitterly complained of by the English on the ground that it materially affected the fishing. The explanation given was probably the true one, namely, that this offal attracted an immense number of sharks, dogfish, and other predaceous fish, which concentrated in unusual numbers, and not only devoured the offal, but drove out all the fish from the ground. Nothing was suggested as to any desilement of the sea bottom itself by the accumulation of decaying animal matter. (British Fishery Commission Report, p. lxi.)

The fact that the throwing overboard of offal does not in itself drive away fish generally is illustrated in the fishery for the small dog shark about Provincetown. Great numbers of these are taken annually for the livers, which are removed, and the rest of the fish thrown overboard. The result is apparently to increase the number of these fish, and make the catch of a larger number practicable.

The number of skates is greatly increased in any given locality, on the banks where they abound, by throwing overboard large quantities of gurry. This is especially noticeable to the trawl fishermen, who often find after remaining in one berth or position for several days, that the ends of the trawls next the vessel have on them an increased number of skates.

In further reference to this subject of gurry on fishing-grounds and to the alleged wastage of fish by dropping from trawls and gill-nets, it is not a little remarkable that the question of the injury of the use of the trawl-line to the fish and fisheries of the locality where practiced, should at the present time be for the most part confined to North America, while European writers now scarcely refer to any inconvenience likely to result from this cause. The practice of line fishing is considered in its two divisions of hand-line and trawl, or long line, but this is merely a question of comparative expediency and the cost of the investment.

In the question at issue between the fishermen of Great Britain in 1866, the case lay for the most part between the trawls on the one side and the hand-line fishermen on the other, the latter making no charge of any injury to the fishing in the rejoinder against the long-lines.

It is perhaps less the practice in Europe than it is in America to clean the fish at sea, and to throw the refuse overboard, a wasteful practice, which of course is to be discountenanced. In Norway, on the great fishing-grounds, the sale of the offal to companies organized for utilizing it is a matter of very great importance. It is sold at a fair price, the dried head of the cod being in part prepared as food for cattle, but for the most part converted into guano, which has an established position in the European markets, as might be expected, allowing it to constitute one-third of the total weight of nearly 20,000,000 codfish.

In England the codfish taken are for the most part sold entire or dressed in the fishmongers' establishments.

If a considerable percentage of the fish taken on the long-line or trawl is necessarily lost by dropping off from the hooks by their excessive weight on being hauled up, the injury, if it be one, of their decay on the sea-bottom would in all probability have impressed itself upon the minds of observers in England; but the only allusions I have been able to find to this subject of dead fish on fishing-grounds is in connection with the herring fishery on the coast of Norway, where it was alleged that the dead fish which were lost from the gill-nets polluted the water and tended to drive the herring away.

According to Feddersen (Rep. U. S. F. C., 1873-5, p. 183), neither this nor the discharge of oil into the ocean from factories on shore proved to have any deleterious influence, the fish coming year after year even in increasing abundance to localities infected as mentioned, while they were just as likely to disappear capriciously and suddenly from waters where no such complaints could be alleged; indeed, as stated on page 118, a careful examination of the bottom of the sea, by means of the water telescope failed to reveal a persistence of dead fish, the appointed scavengers of the sea very soon removing them effectually. It was only occasionally in the crevices of the rocks and apparently sheltered from convenient approach that the dead herring or their skeletons were known to remain even for a few weeks, subsequent examinations failing to indicate the presence of any dead animal matter.

H.—REVIEW OF THE AMERICAN FISHERIES.

The time when a faithful presentation of this subject can be made has not yet arrived, and its discussion must be deferred until an exhaustive canvass of the country has been made. As a slight contribution to the subject the following tables are given:

Fishery products of Gloucester in 1876.

Cod, 425,000 quintals	\$2,295,000
Mackerel, 101,032 barrels	909,000
Herring, 30,000 barrels	127,500
Dry-fish, other than cod (pollock, cusk, haddock, and hake, about equal proportions), 40,000 quintals	120,000
Shell-fish	10,000
Fresh fish, 11,000,000 pounds	745,000
Fish oil (cod-liver nine-tenths at least), 275,000 gallons	132,000
Fish manure (herring), 8,000 tons	25,000
Miscellaneous	10,000
Smoked halibut (three-fourths made from catch of "fresh" vessels), 2,750,000 pounds	275,000
	4,648,500

40 per cent. of flitching from halibut.

405,000 quintals, pickle-cured.

The following table shows the value and extent of the fishing business of the port of Gloucester for the year 1875:

Bank codfish, 177,473 quintals	\$998,628
George's codfish, 185,758 quintals	1,021,669
George's halibut, 2,462,364 pounds	172,365
Bank halibut, 7,248,423 pounds	507,389
Hake, 4,257 quintals	12,774
Cusk, 2,349 quintals	7,047
Pollock, 9,417 quintals	32,964
Herring, 38,292 barrels	153,168
Shore fisheries, the work of dory fishermen :	
Fresh fish	89,738
Cured	185,697
Oil	8,945

Mackerel:

18,172½ barrels No. 1	\$327,112
7,065½ barrels No. 2	184,780
21,763 barrels No. 3	174,104
4,039½ barrels No. 4	24,205
Pickled fish, 31,750 herring	13,494
163 barrels cod, 40½ barrels swordfish	1,097
410½ barrels trout, 75½ barrels fins and napes	4,042
21½ barrels salmon, 205 barrels tongues and sounds	2,282
Shell-fish, clams, &c	10,000
6,500 tons manure	20,000
All other fish	8,000
Oil, other than above	100,000
	4,059,500

III.—ECONOMICAL APPLICATIONS OF THE PRODUCTS OF THE FISHERIES.

The inhabitants of the sea which occupy a more or less direct relation to man in their economical application are usually classed by the common name of fish, the term fisheries being applied to the methods of their capture. This, however, is to a certain extent a misnomer, as in addition to what are properly known as fish we have to consider the cetaceans, such as the whales and porpoises; the crustaceans, as the crabs, lobsters, and shrimps; the mollusks or shell-fish, such as the clams, oysters, and the like; the corals, sponges, and many other forms of animal life.

The uses to which the various marine animals are put are very various, although by far the most important application is in the way of food for man, and to some extent for the lower animals.

The objects of the fisheries and the applications of the animals of the sea when caught may be considered under the following heads:

(1) *Food*.—For the direct use by man himself; and, second, as bait for the prosecution of the fisheries.

(2) *Oil*.—For food or medicine; for illumination; for use in the arts, as in the manufacture of soap, the dressing of leather, &c.

(3) *Manure*.—Applied in a fresh state directly to the soil; as dried and subjected to chemical manipulation and combination with other substances.

(4) *Utility and ornament*.—A systematic account of all the uses in their minutest detail to which the inhabitants of the sea are put by man would go far beyond the limits of the present article, and it is possible but briefly to refer to some of the more important, concentrating attention hereafter upon those which bear most closely upon the subject of the value of the fisheries in the United States and the Dominion of Canada.

For the present it is necessary to leave out the consideration of the cetaceans and other marine mammals, as well as the corals and sponges,

and some of the applications even of the fishes and crustaceans; and to furthermore restrict our consideration to the fishes proper, introducing other forms only so far as they relate to the question of bait.

1. *As food for man and animals.*—By far the most important application of fish is as sustenance for man; a large proportion of the population of the globe deriving its support more or less exclusively from this source.

Although the fresh-water fisheries in many countries are of great importance, and supply a notable percentage of valuable food, it is from the sea that not only the great portion of the fish found in our markets is derived, but also the bulk of that which is preserved by various methods for a greater or less length of time, and for transportation to distant markets.

Fresh fish can, of course, be kept in a cool climate for a considerable time without any special preparation; but the simplest mode of treating it for preservation is that of drying, by exposure to the sun, either with or without a certain amount of salting.

Next to the drying we have the smoking either of the fresh meat or when it is more or less salted. The salt may be applied either dry or in solution, when the fish are to be used almost immediately (which process is known as corning), or else kept for a longer period. Salt, being a substance found universally, is the cheapest and most convenient medium. The use of borax has already been alluded to on page 137. Salicylic acid, too, in solution can be used to keep fish fresh for a considerable length of time.

Until quite recently the ice has been used by itself, without the addition of any salt whereby to produce the so-called freezing mixture, the fish being kept in boxes or bins in the holds of vessels, in contact with ice, reduced to a greater or less degree of firmness, and drainage being provided to carry away the water. Sometimes the fish are packed with ice and a non-conducting substance like sawdust, which greatly retards the rapidity of melting and permits the shipment in large quantities.

A much better method of using ice alone consists of its application in some of the modern circulating refrigerators, in which it is placed above the receptacle containing the fish or other meats, and a circulation so established which, while keeping the temperature of the air surrounding the meats at a low point, extracts all the moisture from the atmosphere, leaving it perfectly dry, and furnishing an atmosphere corresponding to that of an ordinary clear cold winter's day. The flesh of fish thus treated is very much more palatable than where there is a direct contact with the ice itself; in the latter instance the fish, while not undergoing decomposition, becoming stale and sometimes more or less sour.

The greatest improvement, however, in the preservation of fish for food is by the use of freezing mixtures. Under no circumstances by the use of plain ice at melting temperatures, in an ordinary summer's at-

mosphere, can the temperature be kept below 40°, and where the fish are not actually in contact with the ice, possibly not below 50°. This involves a tendency to become stale, as above referred to. If, however, the fish be frozen hard and stiff immediately after being caught it may be kept in this condition for an indefinite period of time, and when carefully thawed out and used immediately after, will be very little if at all inferior to a fresh fish. For this purpose the fish are now exposed as soon as possible after being caught to the proximity of a freezing mixture of ice and salt; and as soon as well frozen they are transferred to a much larger chamber in which the temperature is kept by the same means at about 12° to 16°.

These apartments have double walls, with some non-conducting substance interposed, as charcoal or sawdust, and usually have several iron cylinders passing through, which are kept filled with a mixture of ice and salt, provision being made for their introduction above the chamber and for the drainage of the melted liquid below without the necessity of opening the room. Here immense quantities may be kept in a state of absolute unchangeableness as long as the condition of the market requires. This method is now employed in New York and elsewhere for the preservation of all kinds of fish, salmon, striped bass, cod, Spanish mackerel, bluefish, &c., being piled up by the cord.

A very important result of these processes consists in equalizing the market, preventing a glut at one time and an excessive cost at another. Any one of the fish just mentioned, with numerous others, can now be obtained without any difficulty, at any season of the year, from such dealers as E. G. Blackford, Middleton, Carman & Co., and others, in Fulton Market, New York.

There seems to be no reason why dry, hard freezing may not maintain animal matter in a sound and wholesome condition for any period during which it may be applied without interruption; and as a case in point, I adduce certain well-substantiated facts in regard to the occurrence of a carcass of the mammoth in Siberia. It is well known that at one time, probably during the interglacial period, the mammoth, or fossil hairy elephant, was extremely abundant in arctic Asia and America, in the former especially, and that even now a large percentage of the ivory of commerce is derived from the tusks of these animals found in the soil, in the river-beds, or dredged up in the Arctic Ocean off the mouths of the Siberian rivers. It is probable that herds of these animals, in crossing the rivers, were drowned and carried out to sea by the powerful current, when the meat soon decayed or was devoured, and the bones decomposing in time left only the tusks to reward the gatherer. Some years ago a merchant of St. Petersburg, in visiting Northern Siberia in the course of his trade, came across the carcass of a mammoth that had been washed out from a frozen gravel bank along one of the rivers, and lay on the beach, where it had been for many months the prey of dogs and of wolves and

other wild animals. At the time he found it a considerable portion was left, although most of the meat had been consumed. It was even then not offensive at all, and the dogs were devouring it with great eagerness. He obtained the skeleton and a portion of the skin, which are now to be seen in the Museum of the Academy of Science of St. Petersburg. The natives assured him that the meat was fresh and fine, and in no way disagreeable. Here we have a case of meat preserved in a natural ice-house through a period, the antiquity of which we cannot readily measure, but certainly an estimate of many thousands of years is entirely within the mark.

The animal was imbedded in the frozen soil below the point where the surface would thaw in the short summers of that country, and remained all that time, with all tendency to decay or deterioration absolutely suspended.

All these processes mentioned for the preservation of fish for food are applied to a greater or less degree in keeping fish to be used as bait in the fisheries, namely, salting, keeping in ice, and hard freezing; drying is less available. They have been discussed under that heading at page 133 *et seq.*

Next in importance is the method of the preservation of fish in oil of one kind or another. Here the fish, after being treated properly, are sealed hermetically in metallic vessels of smaller or larger size. This method of preservation is applied more particularly to the sardines, but is also used in the case of the imitation of sardines, as the pilchards, menhaden, &c. In France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, however, where olive oil is inexpensive, nearly all kinds of fish are preserved, as the tunny, bass, perch, mullet, &c., and various mollusks. Specimens of such preparations were exhibited at Philadelphia in 1876. In the United States, where olive oil must, for the most part, be imported at a heavy cost, other vegetable oils, especially that of cotton-seed, have been found very satisfactory substitutes.

A novel, and what promises in time to become an important, preparation of food is the result of a process for obtaining the extract from the flesh of the menhaden, as invented and patented by Mr. S. L. Goodale, of Saco, Me. The value, both in a hygienic and dietetic point of view, of the beef extracts of Liebig and other inventors, is now well known and established, and the fish extract of Mr. Goodale, strange to say, has no fishy taste whatever, and is scarcely distinguishable from the meat extract. He claims that an immense amount of this substance can be obtained during the ordinary process of utilizing the menhaden, adding greatly to the profits of the business and without interfering with the preparation of oil and scrap. Samples of this extract were presented at the Philadelphia Exhibition, which were considered very excellent, promising a satisfactory future. In his opinion at least 20,000,000 pounds of this extract can be obtained from the menhaden annually without interfering with the yield of oil and scrap, and possibly of nearly equal money value.

It was first brought to notice at the Centennial Exhibition, and received the high commendations of the jury on the fisheries and foods. The fish are first thoroughly cleaned and washed, and then immersed in boiling water for a short time for the purpose of removing the skin. They are then subjected to a subsequent treatment by which 3 pounds of extract are obtained from each barrel of menhaden, or 4 pounds if the entire fish is manipulated without separation from the bones. This process does not in any way affect the value of the fish for the production of oil or manure, and therefore constitutes an important utilization of a waste product, the proceeds of which will probably in time much more than pay all the increased cost of treatment.

The same method can be applied to other fishes of sufficient size to warrant their evisceration, although it is hardly likely that any fish but the menhaden can be profitably treated in this manner, being actually shipped to Italy for the purpose of adulterating the genuine olive oil. There are other modes of preserving animal substances, especially fish, in use in various parts of the country, but those already given are the most important.

In addition to the consumption of the flesh of fish as food, other parts of the body are used for a similar purpose, the most important being the livers and the air-bladders. The livers of many fish, especially the *Gadidae*, of some of the sharks and some other species, furnish oil in very great quantity; and those of the cod especially, and other fish of the cod family generally, are used as food, particularly as nutriment for invalids affected by consumption or other wasting disease. The oil is also used for industrial purposes, which will be referred to hereafter.

The air-bladders or sounds of fish are very extensively employed in the preparation of so-called isinglass, of which the most esteemed is that from the sturgeon and the hake.

Of late years an excellent glue is made from the skin as well as the air-bladder of fishes, but this has mostly technical applications. The isinglass of fish when used as food is usually employed for the most part in the preparation of jellies, gum-drops, &c., as well as in the refining of beer and other beverages.

Under the head of the application of fish as food must be included their use as bait for the fisheries, as also their destruction by their fellows for their sustenance. These subjects will be referred to hereafter.

Besides the use of the meat of the fish, either fresh, salted, dried, smoked, pickled, spiced, in oil, &c., there are certain portions of the body which are considered more or less delicacies. Among these the heads of many species are preferred to the rest of the body. The boiled head and shoulders of the cod, the striped bass, and some other species are considered especially excellent, as are the fins of the halibut. Indeed, in the earlier history of the country the head and fins only of the halibut were utilized, the rest being thrown away. The tongues and

sounds, too, of the cod, hake, and other gadoid fishes are very highly valued for food, and are usually put up salted separately. The air-bladders or sounds of fish have already been referred to as of special commercial value, those of the sturgeon furnishing the well-known Russian isinglass, and being utilized for the same purpose.

Of late years the air-bladders of the hake have been collected very assiduously, and are worth more than all the rest of its body. They are gathered especially on the coast of Maine and in the Bay of Fundy, where vessels are in the habit of visiting the different fishing stations and buying these sounds for from 50 cents to \$1.25 a pound. The drum, squeteague, and, indeed, almost any other of our species in which the walls of the air-bladder are thickened, and that organ is of considerable size, are valued for the same purpose. Several fresh-water fish in South America are also utilized in the same direction. There are establishments in Massachusetts where the business of collecting the air-bladders of fishes of all kinds, and of working them up into marketable products, is carried on.

The skins of many fishes, too, are convertible into a coarse gelatine or tenacious glue. In Russia the cartilaginous backbone of the sturgeon is highly prized as an article of food, and is collected and sold in bundles like whips.

The roes of a great many fish are used as a special article of food, sometimes with the rest of the animal, as of the herring; at others separate from it. The roes of the mullet of the southern coast of the United States are salted and barreled and consumed largely throughout the interior of the adjacent States, the meat itself being less prized.

The caviare of the sturgeon is a well-known article of commerce, and is now being put up in the United States in large quantities, particularly for export to Europe.

I have already referred to the extent to which the business of putting up fish in oil and spices and inclosing them in hermetically sealed tin cans is carried on abroad, particularly by the inhabitants of France, Spain, Italy, and Portugal, this process having been until recently scarcely known in the United States; but it now bids fair to become an important element of our industries. Few persons realize the extent to which the menhaden is utilized in this direction, several establishments in New Jersey finding it really difficult to secure a sufficient supply of fresh fish to meet their demands. Here they are put up in oil under name of American sardines, or spiced and known as ocean trout. The herring is also put up both in oil and spices in New York and at Eastport, in Maine. Mackerel are preserved to some extent in Canada in pound cans, like the canned salmon, several thousand pounds being included in the returns of the proceeds of the Canadian fisheries for 1876.

There is no doubt but that there is a wide field in America for the utilization of fish in this way, and that a large market could soon be

built up, not only in this country but abroad. In 1876 the value of the sardines and anchovies, prepared in oil and imported from abroad, amounted to \$595,901, each year showing a considerable increase. The only advantage that foreign countries have over us in this matter is in the price of oil; and if the cultivation of the olive in California proves to be a success this will furnish the finer material, although the best quality of purified cotton-seed oil is believed to be equally wholesome and can be furnished at a very low figure.

2. *As oil.*—We have already referred to the use of the oil of the livers of fish as an article of food or medicine, but it is in its industrial applications that the oil of fishes merits the principal consideration. While there is a great difference in the amount of oil furnished by the livers in different species, almost any will yield it in greater or less abundance on being boiled and pressed, varying in amount with the species. The most of the fish-oil is, however, derived from the body generally. In one fish abounding on the northwest coast of America, known as the candle-fish (*Thaleichthys marinus*), closely allied to the smelt and capelin, which, indeed, it resembles, the dried fish is used for the purpose of illumination, the amount of oil being such that it furnishes no mean substitute for a candle, being capable of ignition and burning for a considerable time. As this fish is very abundant, it is not improbable that it will hereafter constitute an important source of oil, parties in British Columbia and Alaska being now engaged in the business on a small scale.

It is from the menhaden or pogy of the Atlantic coast of the United States, however, that the greatest quantity of oil is obtained.

Next to the menhaden or pogy the sea herring is probably the most extensive source of supply in the United States, the fish as caught in weirs in the Bay of Fundy and elsewhere being treated for this purpose. It is not improbable that the offal of cod and other fish will after a time be largely utilized in this direction, as it is on the coast of Norway, where very little is wasted.

A further extensive source of oil for technical purposes is found in the liver of the dog shark (*Acanthias*), a small species scarcely more than one or two feet in length, but occurring on the American coast in immense numbers.

As almost any fish will furnish oil when boiled or steamed and subjected to great pressure, other species are treated for this object from time to time, according to their abundance or the immediate necessities, but those mentioned above are probably the most important. The capelin, it is true, furnishes an excellent source of supply, but it is found for so short a time on the coast of Newfoundland and the other regions inhabited by it, that it would hardly pay to put up permanent establishments for operating on a large scale.

The limitations of my subject exclude the consideration of oils as obtained from whales, porpoises, blackfish, grampus, &c., the supply of

which is of course very great, although diminishing in quantity, while that from the true fishes appears to be increasing.

The use of fish-oil as food or medicine is comparatively limited. Its application is more generally to the manufacture of soap, and in the dressing of leather, for purposes of illumination, and, to some extent, in painting. During the late civil war in the United States, when the supply of turpentine was limited, the oil of the menhaden was employed as requiring less turpentine in its service.

3. *As manures and fertilizers.*—The refuse, or so-called "scrap," left after the expression of oil from boiled or steamed fish, is used very largely as a fertilizer, for which it is especially valuable in consequence of the large amount of phosphorus contained in the bones, and of the nitrogenous matters. This is used either directly or after being subjected to chemical treatment, and, for the most part, mixed with the phosphatic earths found on the coast of South Carolina and Georgia, with the mineralized guanos of the Sombrero Island of the West Indies, or with the well-known guano of Peru or of the islands of the Pacific.

4. *Other purposes.*—The remaining applications of fish are of much less moment than those to which we have already adverted, being usually exceptional and confined to limited areas.

Although the skins of fishes have been utilized in various ways by different nations for a long period of time, within a few years this industry has become prominent, and will in time represent a very important element in the total products of the sea. Although the skins of cod, salmon, and other fishes are not unfrequently used as clothing for both the feet and the body by the tribes of the northwest coast of America, it is only of late that such skins promise to come into use among civilized nations. A patent has been taken out in the United States for the manufacture of shoes from the skin of the cusk (*Brosmeus vulgaris*). The skins of various species of sharks are now very carefully saved in the Red Sea, the Mediterranean, and the Indian Ocean, and constitute a considerable article of commerce, the best material being furnished by the genera *Scyllium*, *Seymnus*, *Spruax*, *Acanthias*, *Squatina*, *Squalus*, &c. These are used largely for polishing wood and metal, for covering boxes, spectacle and spy-glass cases, &c.

The skin of the burbot or ling (*Lota*) is employed in Russia and Siberia for trimmings of dresses and for the windows of dwellings, instead of glass. It is also made into bags for holding clothing, &c.

The skins could be taken off from many fish which are now entirely wasted, and from others the meat could be employed in some form or other. When tanned or dressed the skins could be converted into articles of clothing or ornament, and could be used in polishing wood or metal.

As already explained we are far from deriving all the benefit that we might from our sea fisheries, not only neglecting, as we do, a large part

of our actual catch, but failing to secure what is in other countries considered a source of national wealth. Apart from the increase in quantity of the well-established preparations of fish by drying, salting, smoking, &c., there is a large field open in putting up fish in hermetically sealed cans, either in oil, pickle, or spices.

The Centennial Exhibition of 1876 afforded an opportunity for the presentation of vast numbers of preparations of fish, as made and consumed in large quantities in France, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, which could be readily imitated in the United States, and find a market either here or in foreign countries. Indeed, almost every fish of the Mediterranean in the various preparations, notably the mullet, the mackerel, the tunny, the perch, bass, &c., and even squids or cuttle-fish, were found to constitute no inconsiderable item.

Of herring there are many preparations greatly in demand in Europe, of which we know nothing. A reference to some of these will be found in the Report of the U. S. Fish Commission, Vol. III, page 183 (Widegren on the Herring and its Preparation as an Article of Trade).

The carcasses of sharks, skates, and other now refuse fish could be converted into food for dogs, poultry, and even used in feeding young trout or salmon, &c., in piscicultural establishments. Even if they could be sold at from 1 to 3 cents a pound for the dried meat, in the large demand that could readily be developed for the various purposes mentioned, a satisfactory profit could be derived. The meat could be chopped fine or converted into meal, as with the well known fish-meal of Norway.

IV.—MAINTENANCE AND IMPROVEMENT OF FISHERIES.

CONSIDERATIONS RELATIVE TO THE BEST MODE OF MAINTAINING AND INCREASING THE SUPPLY OF THE SEA FISHERIES.

This subject may be best treated under the following heads: First, legislation in the way of regulation and prohibition; second, the increase of the absolute number and variety of fish; third, equalizing the supply of fishes and bringing them from distant points within easy or convenient reach of the fishermen.

1.—LEGISLATION.

The history of the fisheries for many centuries past has been largely a record of attempts either to give monopolies to favored individuals and companies, or well-meant, but in most cases ill-judged, endeavors to protect the fish from destruction and to secure the rights of the people in their capture. The tendency, however, of later years, has been materially to relax and in many cases to abolish these regulations, and it is now becoming generally conceded that, so far as the sea fisheries are concerned, the less the obstacles we place in the way of the prosecution of the fisheries the better. It very rarely happens that the enact-

ments for the protection and regulation of the fisheries are based upon a thorough knowledge of the habits, migrations, and general relations of the fishes themselves, and even while removing or preventing a difficulty in one direction, they bring about a still greater one in another. In many cases action, when taken, is the result of the unfounded clamor or jealousy of fishermen using one kind of apparatus against those employing another, or, in some instances, it results from the influence of the wealthier classes, who wish to preserve the fishing as a sport and relaxation, as against the interest of those who depend upon it for a living. In considering the complaints, therefore, in regard to a particular mode of fishing, and the invocations for its restriction, due caution should be exercised in determining how far the personal element comes into play and how far the interests of the great mass of the community and the world are at heart.

Legislation on this subject is usually included under the following heads: First, the places of fishing; second, the season; third, the time of day; fourth, the size and length of the nets, and the size of the mesh; fifth, the distance apart of nets, weirs, pounds, &c.; sixth, the number of fish that may be taken; seventh, the police and regulation of the boats and men; and, eighth, regulations in regard to the preparation of the fish, and for securing to the purchaser a proper knowledge of their character and quality.

It will, of course, be understood that legislation can be properly enforced against foreign nations at least only within the territorial limits of the country; and as the three-mile line is usually accepted as defining the boundary between the inshore and offshore fisheries, it is usually the space within that limit to which the local laws apply. In some nations the particular areas of the fishing-grounds are assigned to the inhabitants of certain districts, those adjacent to it not being permitted to enter, and severe conflicts sometimes result from such an attempt.

How far one of the United States can enforce any fishery regulations at sea, outside of the three-mile line, or indeed even within it, is a question not to be discussed here; that the United States can do so is perhaps more certain, the vessel being considered a part of the country and carrying into it the conditions of its shore.

In accordance with a convention consummated in August, 1843, between France and England, the exclusive right of fishing by the fishermen of either nation was given within 3 miles of its own coast, the intermediate space being common ground. A provision was made for the employment of cruisers by both nations, not only to protect the rights of their own fishermen, but to see that they obeyed the laws made for their regulation. Cases were specified in which the vessels of one nation might enter the territorial limits of the other, but in no part of the treaty was there any prohibition, when once within the limits, to purchasing bait, or supplies, or of deriving any other commercial advantage.

This treaty is referred to in the Report of the British Sea Fisheries Commission, where it is expressly stated that the vessels of Belgium, with which there was no such treaty, were not bound by it, and that there was nothing to prevent their fishing if they were so minded, indicating that the submission to a restriction must be a matter of joint agreement between two contracting parties (p. lxiv).

With reference to the difficulty of estimating the extent of the three-mile limit, Prof. George F. Barker, writing from Brookfield Center, Conn., September 7, 1877, said :

" With reference to the question you propose, *i. e.*, whether the probability of an accurate judgment of distance is greater when the estimate is made by an observer standing on shore or by a person in the vessel, I would say that in my opinion the probability of a correct estimate of distance is considerably greater in the latter case. Distance, according to the present theory of vision, is always estimated by the eye from the magnitude of the visual angle under which the distant object is seen. Now, since any given object, placed at a suitable distance, will subtend any angle whatever, it is obvious that size and distance are both variables in the calculation, and that if neither is given the problem is indeterminate. A man who does not know how large the object is which he sees, cannot, from this datum alone, form any accurate idea of its distance. Hence, to estimate the distance of any object accurately, the size of the object which subtends the given visual angle must be accurately known. A man of average height placed a mile off will subtend an angle of about two minutes, and if two miles off, of about one minute. To tell that he is two miles off, and not one mile, the eye must accurately appreciate this slight difference of one minute of arc. The human height is so well known that persons are often introduced into art compositions to assist in judging of distances. But at three miles distance, a man is too small an object by which to estimate distance by the unaided eye, the limit of error being so large as to render the estimate of no value. Hence, other familiar objects larger in size must be chosen. If a person on the shore, accustomed to this kind of estimate, sees a vessel which he is familiar with at the landing, he can tell approximately her distance, if she is not too far off. So a person sailing away from the shore may estimate quite accurately his distance from it, provided he be familiar with the size of the objects on shore. If neither person knows by personal inspection the size of the object looked at, the one in the vessel has the advantage, because the sizes of houses and their parts, windows, doors, &c., and also of well-known trees and animals, vary much less than the sizes of vessels. But there is another advantage on the side of the man in the vessel. He forms his judgment not by a comparison with a single object, but from a large number of objects, whose sizes are well known; and his estimate is, therefore, the mean of a large number of separate judgments, and so more reliable than any single one. Moreover, if these objects are successively back

of each other in the line of sight, another advantage is gained, as any one must admit who notices how much larger, because apparently further off, the sun is when on the horizon, where there are objects of comparison, than in the zenith, when there are none. Moreover, as a rule, seafaring men have trained their eyes to estimate distance from a vessel."

To the above may be added the views of C. P. Patterson, Superintendent of the U. S. Coast Survey, given under date of August 31, 1877, as follows:

"From my experience, I conclude, and have always safely acted upon that conclusion, that persons on board a vessel, with rare exceptions, judge the vessel to be nearer the land than she actually is, and this arises in a measure from the fact that the eye rarely recognizes the *foreground*, as it were, of the distances, but is apt, unconsciously, to begin estimating the distance from an imaginary line at some distance from the vessel, the higher the eye above the water the greater being this distance, and the greater the real distance of the vessel from the shore than that estimated. This is particularly seen in handling a vessel in a harbor, or running close in along a shore.

"If the eye is placed at the mast-head of a vessel, the horizon rises, as it were, with the eye, the sensation created being that the vessel is at the bottom of a bowl and the eye on a level with the rim, and from this position estimated distances to objects are almost invariably too short. My own custom was to increase estimated distances accordingly. If a man at the mast-head estimated the distance to an object, unseen from the deck, to be 20 miles, I concluded at once that it was 24 or 25 miles.

"From the shore the eye recognizes a marked foreground (there always being a very decided one, even on a sand-beach of the edge of the breakers or water), which it cannot ignore, and from which it at once begins to estimate distances. The eye being filled with this 'foreground' takes cognizance but indifferently of the object itself, as well as the distance intervening between the outer edge of the foreground and the object, as shown thus:



A being the elevation of eye above the water, D the edge of the breakers and foreground, B limit of foreground, and C the position of object. The angle which the eye instinctively measures is D A B, and this is equal to D A C, be the object wherever it may on the horizon. Then the distance B C is measured only by the greater or less distinctness of the object, there being nothing with which to compare it. From the want of a foreground, if A was the mast-head of a vessel the distance the eye would endeavor to measure is B C, almost entirely ignoring A D B, and

in addition the shore being much more prominent to the eye from the vessel, than the vessel from the shore.

"If the eye on the shore is placed where it can take in a long stretch of coast, it will nearly always underestimate the distance of a vessel from it.

"Of course, the cupidity of commerce sways the judgments of the best people in the direction of their own interests, but I give the results of my own experience for what they are worth.

"The matters stated in your letter also have an effect in the general estimate of a distance over the water from the land to a vessel or from a vessel to the land.

"My conclusion is that as a general rule the distances of the land from vessels and the distances of vessels from the land are usually underestimated. In one case the eye ignores the nearer part of the distance, and in the other the more distant part.

"In this I am confirmed by the experience and opinion of Commander E. P. Lull, U. S. N., Hydrographic Inspector, United States Coast Survey."

The season of fishing, too, is also a subject of legislation. The Government of Norway determines with great care the time when the nets and long-lines shall be set, the introduction of the latter into the water not being permitted at the Lofoden Islands fisheries before 12 o'clock m., their lifting being imperative before noon of the following day. France, England, and other nations have made regulations in regard to the size of the mesh, specifying the minimum for the beam-trawl and for the drift-net, the object being to secure to the young and unmarketable fish a chance to escape. This precaution, however, is of little value in the case of the beam-trawl, where many fish are taken which would have passed through the meshes of an ordinary net without difficulty.

The distance apart of nets, so as to prevent interference, has also been provided for; as also the restriction of particular kinds of fishing to certain grounds, in Great Britain trawling being sometimes limited to certain areas, to prevent interference in the use of the long-lines.

Nearly all nations have regulations in regard to the boats and vessels to be used, among others requiring them to be numbered in certain ways, so that they may be more easily designated and identified in the event of their attempting to evade the law.

The preparation of fish for the market has also been the subject of legislation. Many nations which pay no particular regard to the times, places, and circumstances of the sea fisheries, have considered it expedient to secure the interest of the purchaser by regulating and restricting the mode of preparation and of packing, this being the case, perhaps, more especially in Holland and the Scandinavian countries than elsewhere. The herring fishery in Holland was formerly kept, in all of its stages, under the control of the Government, although of later years this is more particularly confined to the packing and inspection. In

Norway, however, the Government requires that the herring which are found to have in their stomachs certain kinds of food shall be kept alive, inclosed in the nets until this food is absorbed, as otherwise the fish cannot be preserved for any length of time, thereby affecting their quality as food. Still more generally is there an inspection of fish by the State after they have been put up, the packages being marked by Government officials, who are supposed to be beyond danger of any corrupt influence in making the distinctions as to quality.

There is, perhaps, no nation in the world where there are fewer regulations and restrictions in regard to the sea fisheries than in the United States, no response having been made either by the General Government or by the State to the numerous appeals to take the subject under their jurisdiction, and to prevent what is claimed to be improper methods, or unseasonable times of capturing fish, or undesirable modes of preserving them.

There are, however, in several of the States, especially of New England, State inspectors of fish who brand the packages, in accordance with the quality of the fish, these marks guiding the purchaser in his selection and in the price to be paid by him.

Although the propriety of maintaining such restrictions has been questioned, on the ground that all these matters should be subject to the general law of demand and supply, and to individual reputation, yet it is not likely that any change will be made. While it is comparatively easy in many cases to enforce regulations in regard to fishing and the treatment of fish near the shores and under the jurisdiction and supervision of officers, it becomes a much more difficult matter when the fishing is prosecuted at a distance, as in this country on the George's Bank, the Grand Bank, &c. It is, of course, possible to send Government cruisers to accompany the fishing fleets, to see that the fishermen obey the laws in this matter, and this is done to some extent by the Norwegian, Dutch, English, and French Governments, the two latter maintaining a sea police, more to prevent encroachments by the opposite nation upon the fishing grounds, or injury or outrage upon their own vessels. Great Britain, too, has during some years maintained a certain number of armed vessels within her dominions in North America to prevent the encroachments of the American and French fishermen. The United States, however, has never had any provision of this kind, but has allowed the sea fisheries to regulate themselves entirely. Some of the States supply armed protection to their oyster fisheries, both Maryland and Virginia having now, or until quite recently, such a provision.

The propriety of international agreement in regard to certain modes of fishing has not unfrequently been urged, and more particularly it has been proposed that the United States and Great Britain have an agreement to prohibit the use of the trawl or long-line on the Banks of Newfoundland and in other portions of the high seas. Apart, however, from

the questionable propriety of interfering with this mode of fishing, there would be the consideration of enforcing such rules, as it could only be done by means of a fleet of Government vessels of both nations, stationed in different portions of the high seas, involving, of course, the danger of irritation at any attempt at enforcement, especially by the vessel of the opposite nationality.

Again, even if this could be effected and enforced by the United States and Great Britain in respect to their own subjects, there is no probability that other nations would enter the convention or consider themselves bound by its provisions; and without the co-operation of armed vessels of other nationalities, any attempt at regulating the fishermen of the same would be resented by their respective Governments, and danger of war ensue. If there were no interference with the subjects of other Governments, the effect would be simply to give them the monopoly of capture by the prohibited apparatus, or during the prohibited season to other parties, and thus a season's loss would be inflicted upon the subjects of the consenting nations. It might also be a question how far any Government could pretend to interfere with the fishing operations of its own subjects on the high seas; provided, of course, these did not involve any criminal action, or such as is, by common consent, allowed to be a matter of jurisdiction. Of course, the vessels and their catch might be controlled on their entering port; but there would seem to be nothing to prevent the taking of the fish to a foreign nation. It is for these and other reasons, that need not here be detailed, that most careful consideration should be given to any proposition looking towards the restriction or regulation in any way of the sea fisheries of the United States, whatever may be the practice and policy of other nations.

There is, however, a plea for the interference of the Government, in certain cases, in regard to the fisheries that belong to the rivers, or are near the shore, and thereby most specially related to the adjacent commonwealth. Nearly all civilized nations have looked with more or less care after their interior or river fisheries; and quite a number of the States of the American Union have their own special enactments on this subject. This refers more generally to the times when fishing may be authorized; the character of the apparatus, whether lines or nets; but more particularly to the protection of the fish during the spawning season, especially of the trout and salmon. In States possessing shad and alewife fisheries there is usually a definite date when the fish are supposed to have reached their spawning beds or the condition of spawning, and at that time all fishing is interrupted. This varies according to latitude, being earlier in the South and later in the North.

Again, the question of the pollution of rivers is one that comes up for consideration, in many cases the introduction of sawdust or the refuse from gas or manufacturing establishments being prohibited or controlled. Other States, again, require from the proprietors of artificial dams the introduction of some device by which shad, salmon, and

other fish may ascend, and thus be enabled to reach their spawning-grounds. There is also an inspection in the markets, in nearly all the larger cities, of the quality of fresh fish, so as to prevent the introduction for sale of any that are not considered wholesome and fit for food. All these provisions are wise and beneficent, and tend, when judiciously and properly enforced, to protect the fish against decrease and to secure their multiplication, as well as to benefit the purchaser. If the anadromous fish are prevented from access to their spawning-beds, it is within the power of a single person to destroy fisheries of immense value and to deprive a large portion of the community of a wholesome food and an important means of support.

These conditions of protection and regulation, while they cannot be said to apply at all to the deep-sea fisheries, have comparatively little reference to the inshore sea fisheries. But even here we readily imagine that State action, if not that of the General Government, is desirable. The most important point in this connection is the protection of the spawning-grounds (when they can be definitely ascertained) from pollution by the introduction of noxious substances and from the disturbing influences of fishing or other operations. A notable instance of the advantage of regulation in this case is to be found in the matter of the herring fisheries of the Bay of Fundy. The spawning-ground for this fish is remarkably limited in extent, being for the most part situated immediately around the southern extremity of Grand Manan, or what is known as the Southern Head. Here, during the months of June, July, and August the herring resort in immense numbers to deposit their eggs; and limited as they appear to be in distribution at that time, the great number of vessels that followed them to that region took immense quantities of spawning fish, and apparently broke up the schools and prevented them from depositing their eggs under proper conditions. The result appeared, at least, to be a very great diminution of the fish, and the threatening of their practical extermination. Under these circumstances the Province of New Brunswick passed a law establishing the months of June (?), July, and August as a close time, during which no fishing was to be allowed, and appointed an officer to enforce the regulation. For several years many attempts were made to violate the law, with more or less success; but gradually the power of the Government, and perhaps an improved public sentiment, succeeded in breaking up this encroachment, and of late years the protection of these spawning-grounds has involved but little difficulty. It would appear, as the result of this action, that shortly after the enactment the fish began to increase in number, and they are now said to be as abundant in the Bay of Fundy and its vicinity as they were ever known to be since the earliest history of the country. It is of course barely possible that there is some fallacy in this conclusion, and that it was one of these alternations of decrease that invoked the legislation in question, and that the subsequent increase would have taken place, even if the practice of fishing during the spawning season had been continued.

All the European herring fisheries, especially the most important, as those of Norway and Great Britain, are without restriction as to time of catch, and indeed it is when the herring are fullest of ripe roe that they are the most esteemed. At the Magdalen Islands the herring are taken principally during their spawning season without any restriction or suggestion of diminution. The question, therefore, as to the actual importance of the measure referred to may be considered as unsettled, although I can hardly believe that the provision in regard to the herring fisheries at Grand Manan has not had a beneficial influence. It will not, however, do to prohibit the catch of herring when they are filled with roe, since it is when they are in this condition that they are most highly prized and most marketable, the roe of the sea herring being universally considered a very great delicacy.

There are, however, some fish on the coast of the United States for whose protection during the spawning season I have already urged in a previous report that some provision of legislation is desirable. I refer more particularly to certain fish on the south side of New England, especially the scup, sea bass, and the tautog. These fish appear to come to the coast in well defined bands of immense numbers, at a particular season, following generally a definite line of migration and proceeding to their spawning-grounds, where the operation of reproduction is conducted on an enormous scale, in this respect closely resembling the anadromous fish, such as the salmon, shad, and alewife, and apparently almost equally susceptible to any interference by human agencies. Legislation is expedient here, too, both for the protection of the fish and of the fishermen themselves, since after a few weeks' fishing the glut is so enormous as to bring down the price to a mere nothing, involving the necessity of wasting immense numbers of the catch, the best use to which they can be put being their conversion into manure.

In this case, however, I simply suggested an intermission of capture from Friday night until Monday morning, or if this be too long a period, from Saturday night until Monday morning, so as to secure the escape of a sufficient number of the school and an opportunity to deposit their eggs, this weekly intermission to be continued only for the limited period during which these particular fish are on the move. They move in so close and solid bodies and in so limited an extent that it is by no means impossible to imagine the capture of the greater part of the school and the cutting off of the rest of it from reaching a suitable spawning-ground, or disturbing the individuals so that their eggs are not deposited at the proper time or under proper conditions.

The other fish taken during the same period, especially the mackerel and menhaden, are not affected, as it is only a portion of the migrating bands, and that which happens to be nearest the shore, which is taken under such circumstances, enough possibly passing outside to maintain the supply of eggs and young fish.

As to the conclusions at which I arrived in 1871 in regard to the pro-

priety of a partial close time, I still maintain the same opinion, and am fully satisfied that a fair trial for four years would show such a positive increase in the number of these most important and valuable fish as to satisfy the most skeptical. Unfortunately, in this particular case concurrent legislation of two States is considered desirable, since the migrations and spawning-grounds are partly in Rhode Island and partly in Massachusetts, the fish for the most part passing through the waters of the first-mentioned State before they reach those of the latter. So far, neither State has shown a willingness to legislate either separately or conjointly, and the abundance of the fish referred to will probably be determined by the number of the bluefish that visit the same waters. I think, however, that if protected in some way there would be a decided increase without reference to the presence of this wolf of the seas.

I have found a decided unanimity of opinion among fishermen as to the expediency of such a close time, even among those who do not consider it necessary, in order to maintain the supply of fish, the prevention of a glut of the market, and the securing of time for the proper repair of the nets, and for the needed attention to home business, being important and well-accepted arguments with all classes concerned for the proposed close time.

In many cases it would seem that fish, after they have deposited their eggs, become sickly and unfit for food, and no one can examine a male salmon under these circumstances and appreciate the alteration in appearance and condition without realizing the impropriety of using it as an article of food. For this reason a close time is proper, not only to secure an opportunity for undisturbed spawning by the fish, but also to prevent the consumption of unsuitable fish.

In the New England States the alewife fisheries were formerly, and are still in some degree, taken under the protection of the towns, the catch within the jurisdiction of each town being considered as belonging to its inhabitants, to be distributed pro rata among them, or else sold for the common benefit. Sometimes each individual was authorized to take a certain number of fish; at others officers were appointed to capture them and apportion them suitably. Regulations were made to secure free access from the sea of the fish to the ponds or other spawning-grounds, and for the escape to the sea again of the fish, both young and old, during the summer.

How far it will be desirable, now or hereafter, to regulate the size of the meshes of nets used in our inshore fisheries it is hardly necessary to take into consideration at present, for the reasons already mentioned.

2.—INCREASING THE NUMBER OF FOOD-FISHES BY ARTIFICIAL MEANS.

There are two methods by which this can be accomplished: (1) By the actual transfer of fishes from one region of the globe to another, or one part of the coast to another; (2) by the artificial propagation and multiplication of fish found in a particular region.

Many instances are on record of the successful transportation of fishes, both fresh and salt water species, to localities previously uninhabited by them, and very extended efforts are now being made, promising the fullest measure of success, to carry the shad and the eel of the Atlantic coast to the Mississippi Valley and the Pacific slope, as well as the tautog, the lobster, and the oyster, and to transfer the California salmon and trout to the Mississippi Valley and the eastern coast of the United States, the carp from Germany to America, &c. Less has been done in this direction with the sea fishes, although even here there is something to record. It is said that the *Scarus*, a well-known labroid fish of the Ægean Sea, was brought, in the time of the Emperor Claudius, to the coast of Italy and planted near the mouth of the Tiber. They were protected from capture for five years, at the end of which time they swarmed in enormous abundance and constituted an important element in the Roman fisheries, being considered one of the greatest delicacies. (Report U. S. F. C., III, p. 10). In the United States the scup is said to have been carried in a smack from Vineyard Sound to Cape Cod Bay, and that a similar experiment was made in a transfer of the tautog both to Massachusetts Bay and the South Carolina coast.

The attention paid by the early Romans to securing an ample supply of fish is well understood, as also the enormous expense of their operations in the construction and maintenance of fish ponds, &c. Among the most highly esteemed species were the red mullet (*mullus*), and the sea eel, the latter being kept in tanks constructed for the purpose, and fed, in some cases, it is said, with the flesh of slaves, as imparting an added delicacy. The introduction of fish from distant points was there practiced to a greater or less extent.

The limitations of temperature, however, and appropriate food, will probably determine what may be accomplished in the way of exchanges between the northern and southern coasts of the United States; and there are a few species in European waters the introduction of which it will be well to attempt, especially if brought into waters of the same general physical conditions. Among such desiderata may be reckoned more especially the turbot and sole, which constitute the most important element in the beam-trawl fisheries, and which, as already explained, always command a high price. There seems no good reason why these fish might not become, in a few years, after a successful transfer of a few individuals, as abundant as they are on the European coasts. An ample supply of suitable food and of the necessary external conditions could be assured to the new-comers. The experiment would perhaps succeed best on the eastern coast of Massachusetts, where the conditions are quite similar to those of their native habitat. If they were found to thrive in the region south of Cape Cod, an enormous fishery might in time be assured in view of the adaptation of the waters to successful beam-trawling.

As a return to Europe for the contribution of the turbot and sole
S. Mis. 90—11

the alewife might be offered, a fish which should thrive in all the rivers, ponds, and lagoons connected with the sea, whether in the warmer or colder portions; and as they move in well-defined bands of vast numbers of individuals, within narrow limits, it would add greatly to the food resources of the country. A very considerable expenditure of money on the part of European Governments, especially that of Germany, where the ordinary sea fisheries are restricted, would probably be amply justified in a few years, the fish being by far more valuable and worthy attention than the salmon and trout, and perhaps not excepting the shad.

From present information on the subject there are no other European sea fish, excepting the turbot and the sole, that would be especially important in America; possibly the fresh-water sterlet of Russia and the hucho salmon of the Danube might be introduced to advantage. This last-mentioned species remains throughout the year in the Danube River and its tributaries, and constitutes an excellent article of food. It might, perhaps, be quite advantageously planted in the Mississippi, where it would find an ample supply of the poorer sorts of fish, for the most part not considered worth anything for market purposes.

The artificial propagation of sea fishes has not yet been attempted on any experimental scale, although there seems to be no particular reason why a vast increase cannot be accomplished in this direction, as with the anadromous or interior species. There is no question as to our ability to multiply salmon and shad to any desired extent, and the same general treatment might readily be applied to many of our coast fishes. The principal difficulty in the way would be the construction of the proper establishments, although the recent experiments of the U. S. Fish Commission, and that of Maryland, point out a reasonable method of accomplishing this, as will be referred to hereafter. It would be quite impossible to undertake to feed the young fish when hatched, as is done with trout; but the methods used for shad and in most cases for salmon hatching, could be made use of, namely, that of introducing the young fish into the water and leaving them to their own resources so soon as the yolk-bag is absorbed and the fish is able to feed itself.

According to reliable estimates, not more than 1 egg in 200 hatched naturally in the waters produces a fish capable of feeding itself, this representing by far the greatest expectancy of destruction in the number of eggs laid by the female.

On the other hand, artificial impregnation and propagation should give us not less than 175, or even more yet, of the 200, a vast difference, which could not fail to tell in the result. In other words, the proportional result of artificial hatching is 175 fold that by the natural spawning of the same number of fish. The young, when ready for introduction into the water, could readily be placed in sheltered bays and coves, and possibly fenced off for a time from the intrusion of larger fish, and kept there until they had attained a sufficient size to protect themselves to a considerable degree.

This experiment of artificial hatching could be adopted very readily on the south coast of New England, in connection with fisheries of scup, tautog, and sea bass, especially as all these fish are greatly in demand and are taken in great numbers in the fish pounds and traps of the southern coast during the months of April, May, June, and July. The sea bass especially spawn very largely during the latter period. An ample supply of scup could easily be obtained during the spawning season, and if necessary the tautog and sea bass could be kept in pens until ripe. These fish are very frequently kept for weeks, or even months, waiting the call of the market, and as they are very hardy, it would not injure them at all for market purposes to strip them of their spawn at the proper time. The eggs of this fish probably hatch out very quickly; in the tautog, indeed, an embryonic development of the egg is said to take place before it is laid, so that not unfrequently some of the eggs squeezed out into a bucket of water will hatch out almost immediately. In an experiment of artificial impregnation and hatching of the sea bass, prosecuted at Noank, Conn., in 1874, there was reason to conclude that the period of development did not exceed one week.

The pound-nets frequently take great numbers of spawning mackerel, which might also be manipulated; and there is no reason why the sheepshead might not be treated in a similar manner, nor, indeed, why the process might not be extended to such species as the cod. The striped bass is a fish that promises ample success in such an experiment as soon as we can succeed in taking it in sufficient numbers. At least some spawning fish are found in the rivers at the same time with the shad and herring; whether simply in pursuit of this prey or in search of a spawning-ground is not yet ascertained. In 1873 the parties of the U. S. Fish Commission engaged in hatching shad in the Roanoke River succeeded in taking several ripe striped bass, from one of which 100,000 eggs were successfully taken and hatched. The eggs are smaller than those of the shad, although similar to them in being non-adhesive and in being hatched out in a short time.

The principal difficulty in regard to the multiplication of the sea fish by artificial means is in the arrangements necessary for the care and preparation of the egg. The ordinary hatching establishments used for trout and salmon are not available since salt water is required for the purpose. It is true that this might be pumped up by means of a wind-mill or otherwise into tanks, and allowed to trickle into the hatching troughs, and thus produce the necessary current. Even if this could be done, however, the limits of space and the comparatively small number of fish that could be obtained will probably render it expedient to adopt some other method.

The first suggestion would be the employment of the floating-box, as constructed by Seth Green, E. A. Brackett, and others, and used in the hatching of shad. A serious difficulty, however, is in the danger of

having them upset and the contents spilled out, or else greatly injured by the action of the waves, experiments made in this direction nearly always resulting disastrously.

Much more wholesale and efficient methods of accomplishing this important object are, however, at our command, as suggested by the success of experiments prosecuted during the spring of 1877 at Havre de Grace in hatching eggs of shad on a large scale, in connection with the operations of the U. S. Fish Commission and of the Maryland commission. Mr. T. B. Ferguson, the efficient and accomplished Maryland commissioner of fisheries, has devised a method by which the hatching of shad can be prosecuted in tidal waters and by which not only a great number of eggs can be hatched in a very small space, but also the danger of losing the eggs in consequence of the upsetting of the hatching boxes in stormy weather can be prevented. This device consists in a series of buckets, with wire-gauze bottoms, which are alternately depressed and raised by means of an axis rotated by steam-power. The buckets dip into the water, the eggs floating in them, and the gentle motion of elevation and depression through the space of five or ten inches, the extent and rapidity of which can be varied at pleasure, gives the eggs that agitation and the continual contact with a new supply of water necessary to their proper condition. Nine million eggs were thus hatched with a much less expenditure of labor than heretofore; and instead of some hundreds of floating boxes being called into play, six to twelve buckets, worked along the edge of a floating scow, answered all the purpose.

Still other methods can be used, possibly in some cases to even greater advantage, namely, the placing of the eggs in funnel-shaped vessels, with a stream of salt water pumped up through the bottom, giving the eggs a constant agitation. A wire-gauze screen prevents the eggs from dropping into the mouth of the funnel, and the constant overflow of the water carries off all the dead offal matter. It would, of course, require a considerable expenditure to start such an establishment. A small engine, of four or five horse-power, with the necessary accompaniments, however, would probably be large enough. With such an apparatus in connection with some of the great fisheries, like those in Seconnet River at Rhode Island, or at Menemsha Bight on Martha's Vineyard, results of incalculable value might and probably would in time be obtained. Instead of counting the yield of the fisheries by the hundreds of thousands, millions could be estimated for, and it would not be difficult to guarantee the propagation of one hundred millions of young fish as the result of a single season's work. These, when the yolk-bag was absorbed, could be scattered or sown along the coast in different localities so as to increase the opportunity of finding suitable food and of escaping the ravages of their enemies.

3.—EQUALIZING THE SUPPLY OF FISHES.

A third subdivision of the subject of maintaining the supply of sea fish along the coast, and of increasing it, may now be considered. The connection between the fresh-water or rather the anadromous fisheries of our coast and the sea fisheries has been dwelt upon in previous reports, and while not assenting to the possibility of diminishing the supply of sea fish by ordinary human agencies, I have been satisfied of the disappearance of certain fish from our shores for the want of suitable food, and their migration elsewhere. Of the possibility of attracting fish from great distances by suitable food we have numerous instances. Thus the mackerel fishermen have been in the habit of throwing chopped bait overboard, which was carried a distance, possibly of miles, by the tide. When the school of mackerel strikes this stream of food it follows it up an indefinite distance and comes in immediate proximity of the source of supply, where the fishes can be captured by the hook or the net. Where many vessels are engaged in this business, it is said that the schools of mackerel are brought from a distance of many miles and held in the vicinity, against their ordinary instinct of migration. On the occasion, some years ago, of the lamentable falling off in the autumn mackerel fishery on the coast of Nova Scotia, involving considerable destitution and distress among the fishermen, the cause was believed to be in the immense amount of mackerel bait thrown overboard in the Bay of Saint Lawrence by the mackerel smacks, which kept the fish in the bay a long time beyond their usual period of leaving it, so that when they once commenced their autumnal migration they passed directly out to sea, without stopping, as was their custom, in the shores.

The effect of gurry, too, on fishing-grounds may probably be explained by the attractions of this stream of animal matter carried by the tide over a distance of many miles to the dogfish, sharks, and other predaceous species, these following it up and concentrating in the vicinity, where they drive away the food-fishes which form the more special subject of the attention of the fishermen. A similar instance is found in connection with the salmon in the Gulf of Saint Lawrence, where the fish are taken in quantities for salting, smoking, or other modes of preparation. Here immense quantities of offal are thrown into the water, where, however, instead of attracting the destructive fishes, has the effect to bring in such species as the cod and render them capable of capture. At one time this practice of throwing offal overboard was considered very objectionable, and an enactment was passed requiring it to be brought on shore and buried or utilized there in some manner. As the result of the diminution of this supply of animal matter the fishes abandoned the ground entirely, and great complaint was made as to the absence of the food-fishes, even of the salmon itself; and subsequently a compromise was effected by which this matter was placed in perforated boxes and the softer portion allowed to pass out and wash away. This, in connection with the great numbers of maggots of the blue-bottle fly

which also passed into the water, in a short time restored the previous ample abundance of the fishes. In view, therefore, of these circumstances we can readily understand how much the movements of the sea fish along the coast may be influenced by the enormous schools of salmon, mackerel, shad, and alewives, the adults coming in during spring and summer and returning with the young at other seasons of the year, and upon which they prey to a greater or less extent. It is now the general impression that the anadromous fishes just mentioned pass the period of their growth in the sea at no great distance from the mouth of the river in which they were hatched, possibly extending their movements outward 5 to 50 or even 100 miles, but still occupying a certain relation to the rivers in question. A proof of this generalization is found in the fact that in a cruise made by Mr. G. Brown Goode in a mackerel vessel off the coast of Maine, in 1873, young shad, probably one or two years old, as well as alewives, were found in considerable proportion among the mackerel taken in nets 25 to 30 miles off the shore, and he was assured by the fishermen that this was a very common occurrence. Such fish are not brought in, as they are not considered marketable, and are generally thrown into the water when taken from the nets, where they become the prey of other fishes.

It is only necessary to bear in mind the enormous mass of these anadromous fish one hundred years ago, and even later, to appreciate the influence they can exert in attracting fish from the outer waters to the shores and keeping them there for a considerable part of the year, and the lamentable result of the destruction of this source of supply, not only on its own account but also for its influence upon the sea fish. It is well known that while these anadromous fish were present there was an ample supply of cod, haddock, halibut, hake, and various other species close in to the shore. On the whole New England coast, as well as in many parts of the Dominion of Canada, the fisherman, in an ordinary open boat, could go out and catch a full fare at a short distance from the land, both for use as fresh fish and for purposes of commerce, and that it was not until this source of supply was cut off that it became necessary to resort, to so great an extent, to distant parts of the sea. We may therefore hope, as the result of methods now being practiced and their future extension, that the old state of things will be renewed to our great advantage.

As an illustration, both of the loss to our own industries by the destruction of the supply of anadromous fishes, and of the amount of attraction that would be furnished from a single river to the incoming fishes and the retention on the coast of the outside fishes, I may again refer to the quotation on page 50 from Martin's Gazetteer of Virginia. Omitting here any considerations as to the enormous value of this fishery, but bearing in mind that this was only one of at least forty rivers where an almost equal catch might be looked for, let us proceed to consider the amount of food and bait available for the sea fish, re-

sulting from the herring alone. For the 750,000,000 actually captured we may suppose that this was not more than one-fourth of the total number in the river during the season, which would give 3,000,000,000 for the Potomac River only. From Florida to the Bay of Fundy, without any reference to Dominion waters, we may safely assume the number to be at least one hundred fold, a calculation probably far within bounds, five times that amount and more, possibly, being the more reasonable. We have, therefore, 300,000,000,000, representing a weight of not less than 200,000,000,000 pounds. The progeny of these herring in their various stages of growth from the first year to the fourth, may certainly be estimated at twice the aggregate weight of the parents, or 400,000,000,000 pounds, giving us 600,000,000,000 pounds of fish along our coast of this one species. It may safely be assumed that at present not more than one-tenth of 1 per cent. of these fish now inhabit the waters specified, or only 600,000,000.

I have made no reference to the adult and young of the shad, the tailor herring, the gizzard shad, the striped bass, the various *Cyprinidae*, and other fishes running in from the sea at about the same time with the other fish, and tending to swell the aggregate in the waters. But I think it will be readily understood what a loss we have experienced, not only in the way of direct food, but in the inducements to other fishes to come within our reach; and in the Dominion in the numbers of anadromous fish.

It is, therefore, very encouraging to believe that, even though from the changes in the physical condition of the land, water, artificial obstructions, &c., we may not look for the old-time abundance, we may yet hope for a very considerable increase; even if we get back to one-fourth the original supply, we may well be satisfied.

A comparison of the statistics of the number of shad and alewives caught in the Potomac River in a single season of six weeks' time, and salted, to the extent of 995,000 barrels,* with those of the sea herring in any part of the world, will show the insignificance of the latter; while the fishery on the Potomac during the period referred to equaled the total yield of the Scottish salmon fisheries in 1873, prosecuted throughout the year, and employing 15,000 boats and 45,594 men, and equaled nearly twice the entire number of barrels of the sea herring put up in the Dominion of Canada in 1876.

* It is proper to say that the accuracy of Martin's figures has been disputed by some recent writers. Even if they are, however, twice as large as the fact would justify, the general argument would not be invalidated.

V.—POLITICAL CONSIDERATIONS.

MEMORANDUM OF POINTS ATTEMPTED TO BE ESTABLISHED IN THE CASE FOR GREAT BRITAIN, BY GEORGE M'KENZIE AND OTHERS.

Mackerel.—Mackerel keep close to the shore. All mackerel fishing, therefore, must be near shore, within the three-mile line.

The proportion of mackerel taken outside this line, usually one-third or less of the catch.

The American average catch of fish, six or seven hundred barrels.

Shrimps and small fry are the food of the mackerel. Not found out at sea, but close inshore.

Americans pay no attention to the three-mile line, after the abrogation of the reciprocity treaty, keeping outside only when cruisers were in sight, and returning when they went away.

The universal testimony of the Americans is that unless permitted to fish within the three-mile line, it would not pay to come into the bay.

According to their own statements two-thirds and even more of their catch are always taken within the three-mile line.

Seining for mackerel will soon clean out the fisheries of the Gulf of Saint Lawrence.

The presence of Americans is injurious to the body of the fishermen of the Dominion.

Would be willing to pay the whole duty imposed by the United States, and even more, if Americans could be kept entirely outside of the three-mile line; the Dominion catch would be much greater.

Gurry.—Throwing gurry overboard drives the fish away. This practice is exclusively American. Dominion fishermen clean their fish on shore.

Transhipping is a benefit to the Americans, enabling them to make more trips in the same time.

No Dominion fisherman ever goes to American waters in a British vessel to fish. Reason (according to McKenzie, p. 121), the Americans would run them off.

Americans tranship at Charlottetown and the Gut of Canso.

Codfish (Thomas Bennet, Newfoundland, p. 134).—The cod fishery on the coast of Newfoundland is entirely inshore.

Americans obtained bait illegally on the coast of Newfoundland before the Washington treaty.

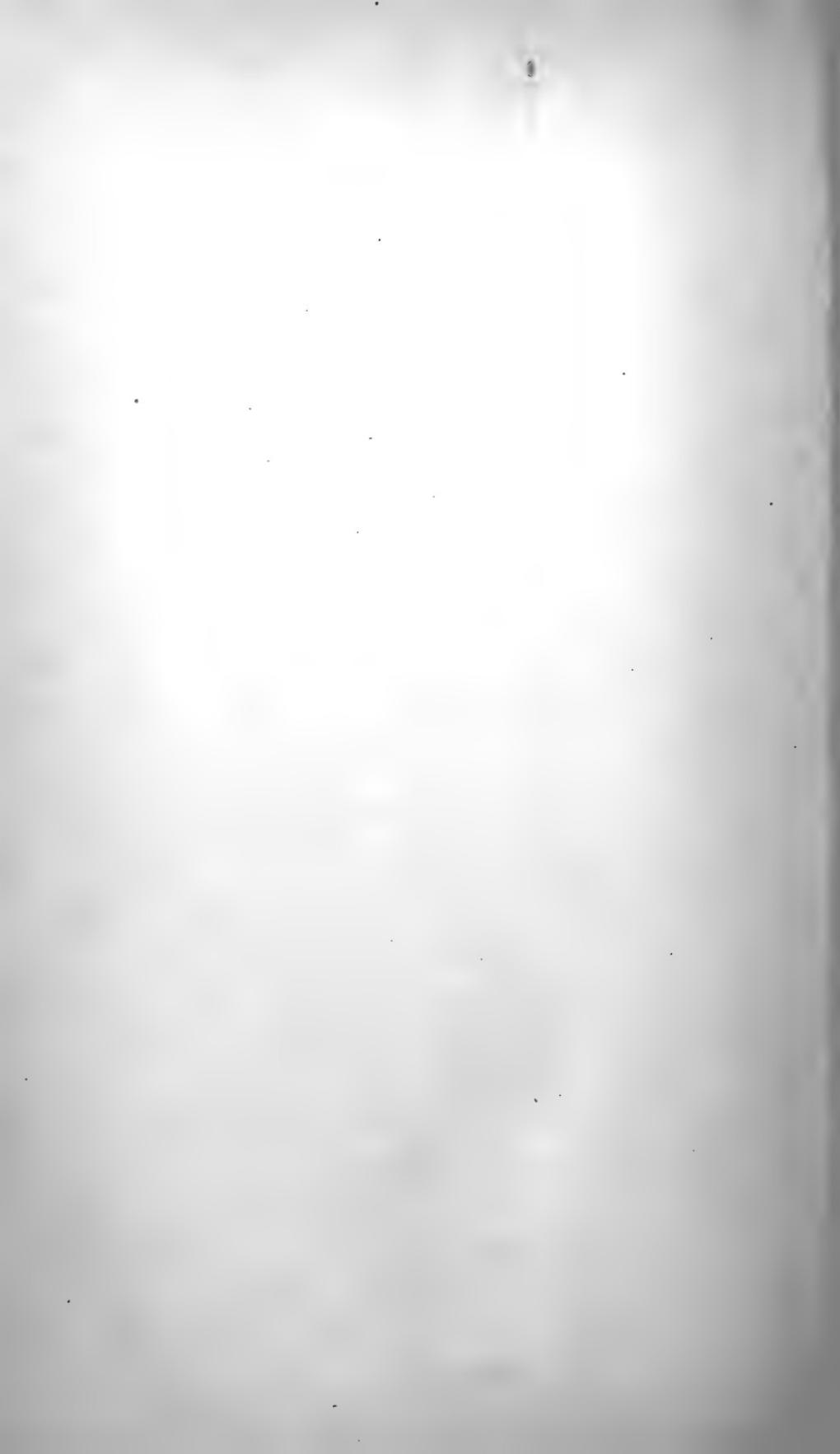
Newfoundland has reaped no benefit from the Washington treaty; the exports to the United States are lower than when there was a heavy duty on Newfoundland products.

The amount exported to the United States is too trifling to have any appreciable effect on the commerce of Newfoundland.

Americans fishing off the Newfoundland banks derive a great profit by selling the small fish, under 22 inches, in the Newfoundland markets.

Thinks the remission of duty by Newfoundland on these far larger than the remission on all the products sent by Newfoundland to the United States. The remission of duties by the United States on Newfoundland products of late years is only \$49,000, while the amount remitted by Newfoundland is \$78,000.

Never knew a Newfoundland fisherman to go to the coast of the United States to fish.





APPENDIX.

The foregoing paper having been prepared for use in presenting the case of the United States before the Halifax Commission, it seems desirable to append the testimony of the author as given before that Commission on October 18 and 19, 1877.

[Extracted from "Documents and Proceedings of the Halifax Commission, 1877, under the treaty of Washington of May 8, 1871," pp. 2795-2816 and 2821-2849.]

Prof. SPENCER F. BAIRD, assistant secretary of the Smithsonian Institution, Washington, and United States Commissioner of Fish and Fisheries, called on behalf of the Government of the United States, sworn, and examined.

By Mr. DANA:

Question. It is not necessary, of course, to ask this witness any questions to show his position or general acquaintance with and knowledge of the subject. I would like, however, to have you state, if you please, as I am going to give, by and by, some of the results of your inquiries—I would like to have you state particularly how you have obtained, and from what sources you have obtained, information respecting the fisheries of late, besides what you have studied in books.—Answer. I have been in the habit for five years past of spending from two to three months on the sea-coast for the purpose of prosecuting inquiries into the condition of the fisheries, to determine whether, as alleged, the American coast fisheries have been decreasing, and to ascertain what steps, if any, might be adopted to remedy the difficulty, if found. I have, in pursuance of that work, established stations in successive years at Eastport, Portland, Salem, Wood's Holl, on the south coast of New England, and at Noank. And I have had with me a force of experts, naturalists, and gentlemen interested in the biology of fishes, and have endeavored to gather such information as I could from my own personal observation and that of my colleagues, as well as by inquiries from fishermen and others whom I have met.

Q. How far have you prosecuted that personal inquiry of the fishermen and persons engaged in the fisheries?—A. I have, by the help of a phonographic secretary, taken the testimony of many hundreds of fishermen along the coast in reference principally to questions in the natural history of fishes. The facts as to the statistics of the fisheries have come out incidentally, and were not the original object of my inquiry. I was interested more in determining what kinds of fish we had, what natural, physical, or moral causes influenced them, and what would probably be the result of these causes, and how any evil influences could be remedied.

Q. Then have you employed fishermen to examine and make inquiries?—A. I have had in my employ several men, some for the whole year, or several years in succession, and others for a part of the year, who have taken a series of printed questions that I prepared in regard to the natural history of fishes, and pursued these inquiries in regions where I myself could not go conveniently, especially in the winter season or in the early spring.

Q. Then you issued some printed circulars?—A. Yes; a great many thousand blanks, inviting responses, and I have had a reasonable percentage of returns, of which I

consider a fair percentage more or less reliable. But, as a general rule, as everybody knows, fishermen know less about fish than they do about anything else. That is to say, they know how to catch fish and the practical details of their business, but of their natural history they know very little. About such questions as the time of their migration, the rate of their growth, their spawning seasons, and other matters only here and there will you find a man who has observed and noted the facts closely enough to be able to answer your questions.

Q. You employed some such persons?—A. I have one man especially, a skilled fisherman, resident on the south coast of New England, and whom I employ to visit the different fishing stations and gather statistics.

Q. Have you any of those circulars about you?—A. I have one. [Circular produced.]

Q. [Reading circular.] There are something like nearly ninety different questions. Under one head you require the man's name, &c. Then as to the distribution of fishes: what kind of fish he has in his neighborhood, their abundance, migrations, movements, food, relationships, reproduction, artificial culture, diseases, pursuits, capture, their economical value, application, &c.—A. That circular was issued in 1871. I have issued a great many editions of it. Then I have another circular which refers more particularly to the coast and river fisheries. I have only issued this within the present year.

By Hon. Mr. KELLOGG:

Q. Was that about the time, Professor?—A. Yes; the first thing I did was to distribute these questions in order to get as much information as I could. I have some eight or ten special circulars, but these are the ones I have most used. I have issued special circulars for the cod and mackerel and menhaden, but of these I have not copies with me.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. Here [referring to circular spoken of as issued during the present year] you have the home fisheries, the river fisheries; they don't come directly under our cognizance.—A. These are the coast and river fisheries particularly.

Q. Not the deep sea?—A. Only incidentally. They are sea-coast fish, but not outside. There is a schedule of the principal fish marketed in the Boston market. My object was to get the number of pounds of these fish taken in the vicinity of the person to whom the circular was given.

Q. You think these have been pretty fully answered?—A. I have a great many answers.

Q. And from your information, which you gather as you go about, from what is sent to you by the return of these circulars, and from the persons employed by you, it has been your business to make yourself fully acquainted with the subject?—A. Yes; I have, of course, used what published material I have found. I found a great deal of value in the reports of the Canadian fisheries. What little I know of the fisheries in Canada I have learned from these documents.

Q. Wherever there are documents published by the United States you have them?—A. Yes; I have them; and I have European documents, English, Norwegian, &c. I believe I have everything.

Q. I will question you first about codfish. I want you to state what is your opinion about the cod as a fish for all sorts of commercial purposes, as compared with others.—A. I think the cod stands at the head of fish at the present day. There is no fish that furnishes food to so many people, the production of which is of so much importance, or which is applied to such a variety of purposes. The commercial yield is very great, and its capture is the main occupation of a large portion of the inhabitants of the sea-coast region of the Northern Hemisphere.

Q. Besides as an article of food, either fresh or salted, what other purposes does it serve?—A. Well, it is applied to a great many purposes by different nations. It is

used, of course, as food in the different modes of preparation. Particular parts are used as food, other than the muscles. The sounds are used as food, converted into gelatine, and in the form of isinglass. They serve a great variety of purposes. The roes are used as food, and bait for fish. The skin is tanned for leather and clothing. A great many nations dress very largely in the skins of cod and salmon. And the fish is dried and used as food for cattle in Iceland and Norway. The bones are used as fuel in some places; and, of course, the oil is used for medicine, and for the various purposes to which animal oils are applied. There is scarcely any part that is not valuable. The offal, in Norway, is converted into a valuable manure. Every part is called into play.

Q. The bones?—A. They are burned as fuel, as well as eaten by dogs, or converted into fertilizers.

Q. It is not, probably, applied in the United States to all the uses you have specified?—A. No; I don't think the skin is used as clothing in the United States, but it makes an admirable leather for shoes, and makes very nice slippers. We have in Washington quite a large number of articles made from the skins, as used in Alaska, the Aleutian Islands, and in Siberia.

Q. You think they can be used?—A. I have no doubt in the course of years the skin will be utilized very largely. In fact, I may remark, that at the late exhibition at the Westminster Aquarium, among the special articles exhibited were shoes made from leather of the codfish, furnished by an exhibitor from Christiania.

Q. You think it is the foremost fish?—A. I think it is. There is none that furnishes so important an industry or which is so abundantly or widely disseminated.

Q. What is the geographical distribution of the cod?—A. There are quite a number of species of the cod, some characterized by certain peculiarities and some by others. The cod in the North Pacific is different from that in the North Atlantic. Both are, however, codfish, and no one could mistake them for anything else but cod. In the Atlantic the cod are found on the American side from the Winter Quarter Shoals, on the coast of Virginia; that is the most southern point I have traced it to; from that indefinitely to the northward. It is found everywhere upon the coast, in the Bay of Fundy, the Bay of Saint Lawrence, off Labrador and Newfoundland, on the Grand Bank, and many other places. The European species, although by some considered distinct from ours, probably have a geographical range equally extensive. I believe they are not in Spitzbergen.

Q. What is the most important locality?—A. Probably the most important single locality that furnishes the greatest amount of fish with the least possible labor in the shortest possible time is that in the vicinity of the Lofoden Islands, on the northwest coast of Norway. That is a region where usually twenty-five millions of fish are taken in three months by some twenty-five thousand men. The Dogger Bank, in the North Sea, is another European locality. In America the most extensive stores of cod are found, I suppose, on the Grand Bank and the George's. They are found, perhaps, also on the great banks off the coast of Labrador, 20 or 30 miles off the coast, extending for hundreds of miles.

Q. Now give the Commission some notion of the abundance of codfish.—A. Well, I have covered that point in my reply to the previous question. It is found in the greater part of those regions at some portion of the year. It is usually more abundant in the spring or summer, autumn or winter, in each locality, in numbers only to be measured by the ability of man to capture.

Q. What do you say of their migrations?—A. The cod is a fish the migrations of which cannot be followed readily, because it is a deep-sea fish and does not show on the surface as the mackerel and herring; but so far as we can ascertain, there is a partial migration; at least some of the fish don't seem to remain in the same localities the year round. They change their situation in search of food, or in consequence of the variations in the temperature, the percentage of salt in the water, or some other cause. In the south of New England, south of Cape Cod, the fishing is largely off-

shore. That is to say, the fish are off the coast in the cooler water in the summer, and as the temperature falls approaching autumn, and the shores are cooled down to a certain degree, they come in and are taken within a few miles of the coast. In the northern waters, as far as I can understand from the writings of Professor Hind, the fish generally go off-shore in the winter time, excepting on the south side of Newfoundland, where, I am informed, they maintain their stay, or else come in in large abundance; but in the Bay of Fundy, on the coast of Maine, and still further north, they don't remain as close to the shore in winter as in other seasons.

Q. Take them as a whole, then, they are deep-sea fish?—A. I don't mean the deep sea as distinguished from the banks.—A. An outside fish? Well, they are to a very considerable extent. The largest catches are taken off-shore, and what are taken inshore are in specially favored localities, perhaps on the coast of Labrador, and possibly off Newfoundland. They bear a small proportion generally to what is taken outside, where the conveniences of attack and approach are greater.

Q. Now, what is known about the spawning-grounds of codfish?—A. We lack positive information in regard to the spawning-grounds of this fish, except that we know single localities. We know the Lofoden Islands are great spawning-grounds. We know that the fish come there almost exclusively for the purpose of spawning. They are not there in the ordinary times of the year. They come in December and January, and spawn in February and March, and are there in most overwhelming abundance.

Q. But on the coast of America?—A. We know there is one large spawning-ground in Cape Cod Bay.

Q. You mean Massachusetts Bay inside?—A. Yes; there is said to be there a long reef about 4 miles wide and about 20 miles long, and the cod go in there and furnish a very important winter fishery.

Q. Then I presume there are similar spots along the whole American coast?—A. Probably they spawn at the Georges, and undoubtedly in a great many localities in the Bay of Saint Lawrence, and on the Banks, although I cannot speak of that, because I haven't had an opportunity of knowing.

Q. What are the relations of cod to other fish?—A. They are friends and enemies. They are warriors and victims. They are extremely voracious, and devour everything that is small enough, without any kind of consideration, and in turn are consumed in all their stages by such fish as can master them. The adult fish are principally interfered with by horse-mackerel, the bluefish, the porpoise, and by sharks, and anything else big enough to swallow them, instead of being swallowed by them. It is merely a question of size whether the codfish is the active or passive agent.

Q. Now what fish do they devour mostly?—A. They eat everything, but they live very largely on herring or mackerel, or any of the small fish found on the sea bottoms. They devour crabs and small lobsters. The stomach of the cod is one of the best dredges you can have. You find there sometimes rare specimens that are never found elsewhere.

Q. Do they digest the shells?—A. No; they digest the nutriment and then throw out the shells. Sometimes you find the shells packed solid one inside of another like saucers in a pile. The wonder is how they empty them out.

Q. But they do?—A. I suppose they must.

By Hon. Mr. KELLOGG:

Q. They devour them whole and then when the meal is digested they eject the shells?—A. The mouth is quite large, and the shell goes out as easily as it goes in.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. What do you think are the seasons for spawning on the American coast?—A. I presume that, like many other fish, they may spawn over quite a range of time. But, so far as our own observation on the American coast goes, their season is from November until March. In Cape Cod Bay they spawn about December and January.

I have no doubt, however, that farther north, where the changes of temperature are not so abrupt, they may spawn more irregularly, and have only an interval of a few months when there is no spawning.

Q. Will you describe this spawn so as to show the prolific nature of the fish?—A. The cod is one of the brag fish in regard to spawning. That is, we hear of ordinary multiplication of fish by that process, but the cod has been found to contain from three to seven million eggs by actual count. Turbot, I think, are one of the very few fish that can beat it. They run up to twelve millions.

Q. We do not have the real turbot?—A. No; from three to five million might be considered a fair annual estimate of the eggs of the codfish. From three to five millions of ripe eggs have been found in the ovary of one single cod, and more.

Q. What becomes of these eggs when discharged?—A. The question of the spawning places for codfish has been one that was originally very uncertain. The researches of naturalists have shown that these eggs are discharged in the open sea on the Lofoten Banks. Some miles from the shore they can be found floating at the surface, and can be taken up by the bushel in towing nets. The eggs are very small, from one-twentieth to one-fiftieth of an inch in diameter, and they have a small globule of oil to make them float.

Q. Now, do these eggs all produce fish unless they are injured in some way?—A. No; there are a great many contingencies. It is not likely that a very large percentage will be fertilized by the male. There is always an uncertainty about that. Then, as they are floating in the water, every fish that may be fond of that kind of sustenance devours them very greedily, and by the time they are hatched out a large percentage is destroyed in this way. Then, the young fry, while in a helpless state, are devoured in large numbers. I should think it extremely probable that not one hundred thousand out of the three millions—possibly not ten thousand—attain to a condition in which they are able to take care of themselves. It is entirely impossible to make any estimate. We know, however, from the analogy of other fish, from the facts in regard to salmon, shad, and that kind of fish, we can make an approximation.

Q. These eggs rise to the surface?—A. They float at various distances from the surface down. Some are a little heavier and some a little lighter. I mean that they are not attached to the bottom. Their specific gravity is very nearly that of the water. Of course when the water is cold they will float better, because the density is greater, but when the water is warm they will sink.

By Hon. Mr. KELLOGG:

Q. Before you leave this subject, I would like to ask whether the spawns are visible in the ocean, that is cod spawn. What is the color?—A. It is transparent, with a little spot of oil in one corner. You would not notice it under ordinary circumstances, but you might if you were looking for it.

Q. The ocean might be full and a common man would not see it?—A. Certainly.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. Be kind enough now to tell us what are the principal modes of capturing cod?—A. The modes of capture vary with the region. For commercial purposes, the fish are caught with hand-lines and the trawl-line, or long-line as it should be called. It is taken very largely in gill-nets on the coast of Norway, and in some other regions. I believe it is so taken on the coast of Labrador, but I don't think it is taken frequently on our own coast in nets.

Q. To what extent is the trawl-line used?—A. It is used all over the world. It is one of the oldest methods of catching fish.

Q. From your investigation, do you think the capture of fish generally, or codfish, or other kinds, by some contrivance like the trawl, is as ancient as any other?—A. I know it is. The Indians, the Aleutian Islanders have used them.

Q. That was not derived from us?—A. No. Travelers have found them in use when the first white men came among them. We have specimens in great number of the trawl of the native savage. Ours have only been brought in within the last five or six years. I don't think it is possible to fix the date of the first use of the trawl. They have been traced back to such a period that there is no possibility of saying that it was introduced by this man or known to that one.

Q. What are the advantages of the method of trawl-fishing for cod?—A. The alleged advantages, as far as I have heard them spoken of, are the larger yield of the fishery. The same number of men in the same time, and in the same locality, will catch a larger fare of fish with the trawl than with hand-lines. Then they require less exposure of the fishermen. They can be set over night and left down through the day at times when the weather would be too inclement for hand-line fishing. Then it requires much less skillful fishermen to use the trawl than the hand-lines. It is merely a matter of putting on the bait and throwing it overboard, and it does not require the delicate manipulation and skill that the hand-line fishing does, and therefore does not call into play to the same extent the functions of the practiced fisherman.

Q. Now, are there any disadvantages connected with the use of the trawl, alleged or actual?—A. There are a great many accusations brought against it. How far these are valid it is impossible for me to say. The principal objection I suppose is that it tempts all kinds of fish. One objection is that it takes fish that are too small size. They use a smaller hook than the ordinary hand-lines, and they say it takes a great many unmarketable fish, which affects the supply. Then another complaint is that the fish being longer in the water are liable to be destroyed by the depredations of sharks, dogfish, and fish of that class. Another objection is that after the fish are caught the marketable fish, owing to their weight, slip off from the small hook and float away and are lost. Another objection is that they catch what they call mother fish, that is the parent fish, which some fishermen think should be left to reproduce their kind.

Q. If they are taken after depositing their spawn you only lose one fish?—A. Yes; but it is probable, judging from the testimony of fishermen, that the fish can be taken during their spawning season with a trawl when they will not bite a hook. As a general thing very few will bite on the ordinary line, but the trawl bait is said to be attractive to them, and the fish are believed to be more likely to take the bait at that time from a trawl than from a hook on an ordinary line.

Q. Well, taking the reasons given both ways, what conclusion have you come to about the use of the trawl for cod-fishing?—A. Well, it is just one of the wholesale modes of capture, which it is difficult to avoid, because the tendency is to centralize, to accomplish the same work by less expenditure of money and of human force.

Q. Do you think it is a case for prohibition or regulation?—A. I don't see how it can be either prohibited or regulated. I hardly see. Of course I have had no practical experience. I may say that the trawl is used very much less on the coast of America than on the coast of England and of Europe generally, and I have failed to find anywhere in the English writers or in the testimony of the British Fishery Commission any complaint there such as occurs in America. There is a great complaint there against what is called the beam-trawl. When they speak of the trawl they don't mean what we mean. What they refer to is a trawl such as we use in our steamer to capture flounders and such fish. Wherever you see the word trawl used by an English or European writer you must apply it to that large net that is dragged behind the vessel along the bottom of the sea. The word trawl is never applied in Europe to the line, and, therefore, there is a great deal of vagueness and error involved in the consideration of the subject unless you know what the particular speaker or witness means by a trawl. But speaking of the long-line, which is the general term, or bultow, I have failed to find in the reports of the British Fishery Commission any complaint by anybody except three cases of complaint against the trawl-line or long-line. One was that it

destroyed the young fish, and the others were that they interfered with the nets. They complained that the trammel-net especially, which is a particular kind used in England, was fouled by these lines and injured.

Q. On the other hand, the net was in the way of the trawl?—A. No; the trawl was in the way of the nets. The trawlers didn't care about the net, but the net fishermen did complain of the trawl. But I have looked carefully to find whether there was any complaint against that line, and I haven't found it. There may be, but I am quite confident it has not assumed anything like the antagonistic features and impression of magnitude that it has in the United States and America generally.

Q. We mean by the trawl a long line weighted or anchored which sinks to the bottom and has — A. It has branches three feet long. That is called a long-line or bultow.

Q. Then at intervals there are buoys?—A. Yes.

Q. To show the position. They are usually in a straight line?—A. In Europe there are generally several shorter lines united in one long line, so much so that on the coast of Great Britain they have a line of trawls six or eight miles in length. In America the trawling on the banks is generally by means of five shorter lines radiating from the vessel, but in England the trawling is done generally on a large scale, without rowboats, directly from a vessel of forty or sixty tons, and the entire series of lines is united in one and sunk.

Q. They are hauled in from aboard the vessel, and not from a boat at all?—A. Yes.

Q. Now, what do they call that which we call a trawl, if it is used at all?—A. They call it a long-line or bultow.

Q. What bait do you find to be the best for codfish?—A. Well, I can't say I find any bait to be the best, because I never caught many fish, but I know that everything of an animal nature, and to some extent vegetable, has been used for the cod. Generally, in America, our bait consists of herring, menhaden, mackerel, a portion of the offal of the fish, sea-birds of various kinds, clams, squid, and the various species of shells, and in fact anything that can be got hold of.

Q. Well, now, what are the methods of preservation of this bait? We have heard of their using salt clams, &c. Has much attention been paid to the possibility of greater preservation of the bait than we have ever yet had?—A. Yes; the science of preserving bait, as well as of the preservation of fish on shipboard, is very low indeed, far below what can be applied, and I have no doubt will be applied, both in keeping fish for food and in keeping it for bait.

Q. Now, will you state what observation you have made respecting the method of preserving fresh bait from the start all the voyage through?—A. As a general rule it is now preserved either by salting or freezing. Of course they keep it as long as it will remain without spoiling, and when you have to carry it beyond that time, either ice it or salt it. Salting, of course, is a very simple process, but it alters materially the texture and taste to such a degree that fish or other bait that under certain circumstances is highly prized by the fish is looked upon with a great deal of indifference when salted. Now, there are special methods of preserving the fish or bait by some chemical preparation, which preserves the fish without giving the saline taste. There are preparations by means of which oysters or clams or fish can be kept in solutions for six months without getting any appreciable taste, and without involving the slightest degree of deterioration or destruction. One process submitted to the group of judges, of whom I was chairman, was exhibited by an experimenter who placed a great jar of oysters in our room prepared in that way. I think about the 1st of August those were placed in our room and they were kept there until the middle of September, for six weeks during the hottest portion of the centennial summer, and that was hot enough. At the end of that time we mustered up courage to pass judgment upon this preparation, and we tasted these oysters and could not find them affected. We would have preferred absolutely fresh oysters, but there was nothing repugnant to the sensibilities, and I believe we consumed the entire jar. And we gave the exhib-

itor, without any question, an award for an admirable new method. That man is now using that process on a very large scale in New York for the preservation of fish of all kinds, and he claims he can keep them any length of time and allow them to be used as fresh fish quite easily. I don't suppose any fisherman ever thought of using any preservative except salt.

Q. That is entirely experimental?—A. It is experimental, but it promises very well. Now, borax is one of the substances that will preserve animal matter a great deal better than salt and without changing the texture. Acetic acid is another preparation, or citric acid will keep fish a long time without any change of the quality, and by soaking it in fresh water for a little while the slightly acidulated taste will be removed. I don't believe a cod will know the difference between a clam preserved in that way and a fresh clam.

Q. Now, about ice. We know a good deal has been done in the way of preserving bait in ice. How far has that got?—A. It is a very crude and clumsy contrivance. They generally break up the ice into pieces about the size of pebble stones, or larger; then simply stratify the bait or fish with this ice, layer and layer about, until you fill up a certain depth or distance. The result is that if the bait can be kept two weeks in that method it is doing very well. They generally get a period of preservability of two weeks. The ice is continually melting and continually saturating the bait or fish with water, and a very slow process of decomposition or disorganization goes on until the fish becomes musty, flabby, and tasteless, unfit for the food of man or beast.

Q. Well, there is a newer method of preservation, is there not?—A. There is a better method than using ice. The method described by the Noank witness, by using what is equivalent to snow, allows the water to run off or to be sucked up as by a sponge. The mass being porous prevents the fish from becoming musty. But the coming methods of preserving bait are what are called the dry air process and the hard freezing process. In the dry air process you have your ice in large solid cakes in the upper part of the refrigerator and your substance to be preserved in the bottom. By a particular mode of adjusting the connection between the upper chamber and the lower there is a constant circulation of air by means of which all the moisture of the air is continually being condensed on the ice, leaving that which envelops the bait or fish perfectly dry. Fish or any other animal substance will keep almost indefinitely in perfectly dry air about 40° or 45° , which can be attained very readily by means of this dry air apparatus. I had an instance of that in the case of a refrigerator filled with peaches, grapes, salmon, a leg of mutton, and some beef-steaks, with a great variety of other substances. At the end of four months in mid-summer, in the Agricultural Building, these were in a perfectly sound and prepossessing condition. No one would have hesitated one moment to eat the beefsteaks, and one might be very glad of the chance at times to have it cooked. This refrigerator has been used between San Francisco and New York, and between Chicago and New York, where the trip has occupied a week or ten days, and they are now used on a very large scale, tons upon tons of grapes and pears being sent from San Francisco by this means. I had a cargo of fish-eggs brought from California to Chicago in a perfect condition. Another method is the hard frozen process. You use a freezing mixture of salt and ice powdered fine, this mixture producing a temperature of twenty degrees above zero, which can be kept up just as long as the occasion requires by keeping up the supply of ice and salt.

Q. How big is the refrigerator?—A. There is no limit to the size that may be used. They are made of enormous size for the purpose of preserving salmon, and in New York they keep all kinds of fish. I have been in and seen a cord of codfish, a cord of salmon, a cord of Spanish mackerel, and other fish piled up just like cord-wood, dry, hard, and firm, and retaining its qualities for an indefinite time.

Q. Well, can fish or animals be kept for an unlimited period if frozen in that way?—A. You may keep fish or animals hard dried frozen for a thousand years or ten thousand years perfectly well, and be assured there will be no change.

Q. Have geologists or paleontologists satisfied themselves of that by actual cases of the preservation of animal substances for a long period?—A. Yes; we have perfectly satisfactory evidence of that. About fifty years ago the carcass of a mammoth, frozen, was washed out from the gravel of the river Lena, I think, one of the rivers of Siberia, and was in such perfect preservation that the flesh was served as food for the dogs of the natives for over six months. Mr. Adams, a St. Petersburg merchant, came along on a trading expedition, and found it nearly consumed, and bought what was left of it for the St. Petersburg Academy of Science—the skeleton and some portion of flesh—which were preserved first in salt and afterward in alcohol. Well we know the period of time that must have elapsed since the mammoth lived in the arctic circle must be very long. We know we can talk with perfect safety of ten thousand years. The geological estimate of it is anywhere from fifty to a hundred thousand years; we cannot tell. There is no unit of measure; we know it must have been some hundreds of thousands, and probably it would have remained in the same condition as much longer.

Q. Now, to come to a practical question, is this a mere matter of theory or of possible use? For instance, could this method be adapted to the preservation of bait for three or four months if necessary?—A. The only question, of course, is as to the expense. There is no question at all that bait of any kind can be kept indefinitely by that process. I do not think there would be the slightest difficulty in building a refrigerator on any ordinary fishing vessel, cod or halibut, or other fishing vessel, that should keep with perfect ease all the bait necessary for a long voyage. I have made some inquiries as to the amount of ice, and I am informed by Mr. Blackford, of New York, who is one of the largest operators of this mode, that to keep a room ten feet each way, or a thousand cubic feet, at a temperature of 20° above zero, would require about 2,000 pounds of ice and two bushels of salt per week. With that he thinks it could be done without any difficulty. Well, an ordinary vessel would require about seventy-five barrels of bait—an ordinary trawling-vessel. That would occupy a bulk something less than 600 feet, so that probably 4½ tons of ice a month would keep that fish. And it must be remembered that his estimate was for keeping fish in midsummer in New York. The fishing-vessels would require a smaller expenditure of ice, as these vessels would be surrounded by a colder temperature. A stock of 10 to 20 tons would in all probability be amply sufficient both to replace the waste by melting and to preserve the bait.

Q. Have you any doubt that some method like that will be put into immediate and successful use, if there is sufficient call for it?—A. I have no doubt the experiment will be tried within a twelvemonth. Another method of preserving is by drying. Squid, for instance, and clams, and a great many other kinds of bait can be dried without using any appreciable chemical, and can be readily softened in water. I noticed lately in a Newfoundland paper a paragraph recommending that, in view of the fact that the squid are found there for a limited period of time, the people should go into the industry of drying squid for bait, so that it would always be available for the purpose of cod-fishing. I think the suggestion is an excellent one, and I have no doubt it will be carried out.

Q. Now, what is the supply of bait for codfish on the American coast?—A. Well, as the codfish eats everything, there is a pretty abundant stock to call upon. Of course, the bait-fish are abundant, the menhaden and herring. The only bait-fish that is not found is the caplin. The herring is very abundant on the American coast, and the alewives enormously abundant. Squid are very abundant of two or three species, and, of course, clams of various kinds. Then we have one shell-fish that we possess. It is never used here, although it is very abundant; but it is almost exclusively the bait for trawling on the coast of Great Britain. This shell-fish is known as the whelk, or winkle.

Q. Is it a kind of mussel?—A. No; it is a kind of univalve shell [submits specimen], and is almost exclusively used for the capture of cod in England on deep-water trawl-liners. It is not used here at all.

Q. Why is it not used here?—A. I don't know except that they have other bait that they get at more readily, and they have not learned how to use this.

Q. But it is very abundant?—A. Yes; quite as abundant as it is anywhere. This is a rather small specimen. The advantage of this kind of bait is that it can be kept alive for a long time merely by moistening it or keeping it in water, so there is no question about salting it or using ice or any other application.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. Is there any particular locality for that?—A. It is extremely abundant all through the northern seas. I am a little surprised that I have not seen more of them here. It is a northern shell. I presume it is very abundant in Newfoundland, and to the north. At any rate it is in any desired abundance in the Bay of Fundy, but not south of Cape Cod.

Q. From all you have learned, have you any doubt that, supposing the fishermen of the United States were precluded from using any bait except what could be got upon their own coast, they could obtain a sufficient supply there?—A. Well, unless the American fishery should be expanded to very enormous limits, far in excess of what it is now, I can't see that there would be any difficulty. I may refer to one bait at our command, which is an excellent bait—salt liver. In some parts that is considered an excellent bait. Of course each part of the world swears by its own particular bait. While the Cape Cod man swears by menhaden, the Newfoundlander by herring and caplin, and the Englishman by winkles, the Dutchman swears by salt liver.

Q. We could have that, of course.—A. Yes. Then the roes of cod are good for bait.

Q. What do you say about gurry? We had a good deal about that in the early part of this inquiry. Be so good as to tell what opinion you have or what conclusion you have come to about its use and abuse.—A. It hardly applies to cod any more than to any other fish cleaned at sea. The gurry is the offal, and that of course may be of salmon or cod or haddock or mackerel. The practice of throwing overboard gurry is in many respects reprehensible, because in the first place it is a very great waste of animal matter. The applicability of this offal to commercial purposes is such that whenever it can be had in sufficient quantities it should be utilized. It is so on the coast of Norway. An enormous number of pounds of fertilizer are made out of the gurry, and the heads are dried and used for food for dogs and cattle. I presume you refer, however, to the supposed influence of the gurry on the fishing-grounds, more particularly. Well, in the first place, more of it can be used now. In the process of hard freezing applied to cod it is brought in more as a fresh fish. But a large proportion of what is thrown overboard can be utilized. It can all be utilized, and it would be very proper, I think, to impose some penalty upon the waste of the gurry by throwing it overboard, in favor of securing its preservation and utilization. But of course the question is as to what influence the gurry can exercise upon the sea fishery, supposing it to be abundant and to be thrown overboard. I have no practical experience in regard to that. I know a great many persons testify that it is very objectionable. The reason why I should be inclined to attribute very little importance to the objection is the readiness with which all such offal is consumed in the sea by the scavengers appointed by nature to destroy it. In the northern seas, where codfish are most abundant and this gurry is in the greatest abundance, the waters abound with countless numbers of minute crustaceans whose business it is to destroy animal matter. The so-called sea fleas are so active that if you take a fish the size of a codfish and put it in a bag of net-work and put it overboard where it will be exposed for a tide in water of anywhere from five to ten or twenty fathoms, you will find, as a general rule, that next day you will have the bones picked clean and a perfect skeleton without a single particle of flesh. I have had thousands of skeletons (I may say literally so) of fishes and birds and small quadrupeds prepared for museum purposes by simply exposing them to the action of the sea fleas. I have put them in bags perforated with holes and left them at the edge of low tide for a tide or two, and the skeleton would be perfectly complete without a bit of meat left.

Q. Well, these sea scavengers, are they usually at the bottom?—A. Everywhere, at the bottom and the top. Then there are the dogfish, the small sharks, catfish, goosefish, sculpins, and the codfish themselves, a variety of lobsters, and other inhabitants of the sea, that are at work, always ready and eager to seize anything of this kind and consume it. Then when the bones are exposed there are the sea-urchins, that make a specialty of devouring them. Now, I cannot say but that this material, under certain circumstances, may lodge in the crevices of the rocks and remain there and become an offense to the surrounding fish, but I rather suspect that the trouble about the gurry is that it attracts the predatory fish. Where it is thrown overboard it tolls them from a long distance. The dogfish, the shark, and other fish are attracted and come to the place where this offal has been thrown overboard, and after they have consumed all that, they turn their attention to the cod and other fish that may be there and drive them off.

Q. So that even throwing overboard the gurry there is a danger of defeating your own purpose?—A. Yes; certainly. That is the hypothesis given as to the supposed evil effect of throwing overboard the offal in the European waters. It prevents the fishing there as long as this state of things lasts, but whether there is an actual injury otherwise I cannot say. The general presumption is against the idea that these substances can have a lodgment for any length of time to produce any offense. It might do it in fresh water. In the lakes you may have such a condition where those scavengers are not provided. But it hardly seems to me that it can be in the seas, in the northern seas especially.

Q. What is the geographical distribution of mackerel?—A. The mackerel is a fish that has not so northerly a distribution as the cod, and perhaps extends somewhat further south; otherwise it is found over, to a very considerable extent, the same range. It is found as far south as the Azores in European waters, and as far as Spitzbergen and Norway to the north. On our southern coast we find it very rarely, and very few individual specimens have been taken in the vicinity of Charleston. It has never been taken in the West Indies; never in Bermuda, I believe; but it is found as far north as the Strait of Belle Isle, and how much further north I cannot say. The two species (American and European) are believed to be identical, and although they are constantly within a comparatively small number of leagues of each other, yet they do not occur all the way across.

Q. What is the season for mackerel?—A. In America the mackerel season is in spring, summer, and autumn. In winter they are not found on our coast, and we don't get them, but we have them on our shores as early as the middle of April and as late as November.

Q. Now, as to the variation of seasons. What do you say about that?—A. It is very rarely they appear in the same abundance in two successive years, or, at least, it is rarely that the sum total of the experience of the fishermen gives about the same aggregate. Sometimes they are so scarce that the actual catch of one year will be much below that of other years, but we cannot say there are any fewer fish actually in the water. It may be that they take a different line; they may keep in different waters; they may show themselves less to fishermen; and may have other modes of variation; but we only know by the practical results of fishing that the catch in some seasons is much greater than in others.

Q. What do you think is known or what do you think is the best conjecture as to their migrations?—A. There have been a great many hypotheses on the subject of the migration of mackerel. At one time mackerel, as was supposed to be the case with cod and sea-herring, was believed to have an extreme range, that a large school traversed the coast of America or Europe, and swept over a range of thousands of miles, making a circuit that occupied one year in its completion. But the evidence at the present time tends to show that the mackerel comes in on the American coast as a great army, broadside, and appears within a reasonable length of time, or very nearly the same time, on all that extent of coast.

Q. Do you think it strikes the coast a little later to the north and a little earlier to the south?—A. The left wing of the army, as we might call it, strikes the American coast first, and the right wing strikes the Bay of St. Lawrence last; but it comes in with a broad sweep, not moving along the coast but coming in broadside. When the quickening influence of the spring sun is felt on this great body of fish somewhere outside, where I cannot say, they start, and the given temperature is reached sooner at Cape Hatteras than at Bay St. Lawrence; but I do not believe that the fish that enter the bay always skirt the American coast, nor do I believe that the American fish go into the bay. They come in a large number of schools, each school representing a family, that is, they spawn together, and they may have a short lateral movement, and they move a limited number of miles along the coast till they find a satisfactory spawning-ground; but, as a general rule, they aggregate in three large bodies; one of those bodies is about Block Island and Nantucket shoals, another is in the Gulf of Maine and Bay of Fundy, and another in Bay St. Lawrence. There are connections between those three bodies. You find them all along the coast; there are a certain number which spawn and are taken all along the coast; they are caught in weirs and pounds in spring and fall within one hundred yards of the shore; but the mass, as far as I can learn from the testimony presented before the Commission, are aggregated in those three great bodies.

Q. Is anything known about their winter quarters?—A. Nothing definite. We miss them for several months, from the end of November until March and April, and we say, we guess, we suggest they go into the Gulf Stream. That they go somewhere where they can find a temperature that suits them and there they remain, is clear; but it is a little remarkable that they never have been seen schooling in the Gulf Stream, that they never have shown themselves, that no fisherman, mackerel, or steamboat captain has ever reported, so far as my information goes, a school of mackerel in the winter season. If they were free swimmers, one would suppose they would show themselves under such circumstances. There is a belief very generally entertained among fishermen that they go into the mud and hibernate. That is an hypothesis I have nothing to say against. It seems a little remarkable that so free a swimmer as the mackerel should go into mud to spend its winter, but there is abundance of analogy for it. Plenty of fish bury themselves in mud in the winter time and go down two or three feet deep. There are fish that are so ready to bury themselves in mud you can dig them out of an almost dry patch as you could potatoes. The European tench, the Australian mud-fish, and dozens of species do that. There is nothing whatever in the economy of the mackerel or in the economy of fish generally against this idea, that it is an inhabitant of the mud. And the fishermen believe that the scale, which grows over the eyes, according to their account, in winter, is intended to curb their natural impetuosity and make them more willing to go into mud and stay there in winter and not be schooling out on the surface of the water. There are well-authenticated cases of fish being taken from the mud between the prongs of the jig when spearing for eels. That this has occurred off the Nova Scotia coast, in St. Margaret's Bay, and Bras d'Or, Cape Breton, and parts of the Bay of St. Lawrence, I am assured is not at all doubtful.

Q. Do not fishermen mainly retain the old theory of the northern set of the whole body?—A. Very largely, but I think latterly they are changing their views.

By Hon. Mr. KELLOGG:

Q. The fish were mackerel that were brought out of the mud?—A. When after eels they brought up mackerel out of the mud, in several instances, in January.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. What can you tell the Commission about the period of the spawning of mackerel?—A. Mackerel spawn almost immediately after they visit our shores. The earliest fish taken in the weirs and pounds in Vineyard Sound and Buzzard's Bay are full of ripe spawn, so that when the fish are taken out of the pounds and put into boats to bring them to shore there are sometimes quarts and pecks of the spawn in

the bottom of the boats. It runs out with the utmost freedom, as it does with any full-spawning fish. That period ranges from the middle of May on our coast, and from June and July in Bay St. Lawrence. Mr. Whiteaves says they spawn in the Bay of Chaleurs in June. The season extends from the early part of May to the beginning of July.

Q. Where do the mackerel deposit the eggs?—A. The mackerel, like all sea fish, with the exception of the herring, the tomcod, and sculpin, has a free floating egg. The egg is discharged in the water wherever the fish happen to be, inshore or offshore, and it floats just under the same condition that the egg of the cod does. It has a small globule of oil as a buoy, and it floats on the surface or anywhere from that to half way down, or perhaps almost to the bottom, depending on the gravity of the egg and the specific gravity of the water.

Q. Is the mackerel supposed to be able to control the time when it will spawn?—A. When the egg is ripe it has to be discharged, whatever happens. The egg cannot be retained after it is overripe.

Q. How do the eggs of each mackerel compare in numbers with those of the cod?—A. The average of the mackerel spawn is about 500,000. They are very small, as you can imagine, for mackerel is not a very large fish. The eggs, when spawned, are only about one-fiftieth of an inch in diameter, about half the size of that of the cod. They vary in size, some being smaller and others larger, but they only vary within moderate limits.

Q. You say they spawned all along the American coast?—A. I presume they spawn in some numbers along the entire coast from the shore of Virginia to the coast of Labrador; formerly they spawned on the coast of Newfoundland, when mackerel were caught there, where they were very abundant a great many years ago, and also off the Bay of Fundy, when mackerel were abundant there.

Q. What is the food of the young mackerel?—A. The young mackerel, like the young of most other fish, feed on diatoms and other marine plants of low origin. They feed on the eggs of crabs and marine animals, probably on the small eggs of fish themselves, and as they grow they eat anything small enough to be swallowed. They don't bite as bluefish do, but they take everything at one mouthful and swallow it whole.

Q. And what is the food of the adult fish?—A. The adult fish feed very largely upon young fish, sand lants and young herring, and probably upon the young of their own kind. They are cannibals, as all fish are. They feed very largely upon what is called hay seed or cayenne; that is a minute kind of shrimp, which is so diminutive you require a microscope to separate it into its component parts. They feed also on large shrimps and on the young of large crabs. Its favorite food in summer is what fishermen have described as all-eyes, that is, young fish which, so far as I can judge, must be young mackerel, because I do not know any other fish that could be so abundant of that size at that season of the year. It is called all-eyes because its body is perfectly transparent, and when you see them swimming in the sunlight you can only see two eyes as two small dark specks. That occurs in almost incredible abundance, covering miles square and furnishing food for an enormous yield of fish.

Q. With regard to its bearing upon the locations of mackerel, I will ask whether there is any particular place where the food of mackerel is to be found, or whether it is all along the coast where the mackerel come?—A. The shrimp belongs to a class of crustaceans which inhabit the high seas everywhere. We took them this year in great quantities in coming across from Salem to Halifax, at George's, La Have, and Brown's Banks, and in Halifax Harbor. We take them in Eastport, Salem, and Portland Harbors, and as far as I am advised by the specialists who are associated with me, there is no part of the ocean where these small animals are not to be found in ample abundance, sometimes enormously aggregated and at other times less common. They are found at all depths of water, from the surface to the bottom. We take them in our dredge and in our midway and surface nets. Those and the young of the large crabs are found under all circumstances and conditions.

Q. Then we take the common bait, pogies, or menhaden. They are mackerel bait, are they not?—A. Eaten by mackerel? I do not think they are, unless they eat them in the winter time. As to the spawning of pogies, we know nothing about it; we infer they spawn in winter off the southern coast.

Q. Are not menhaden used as bait for mackerel by fishermen?—A. The menhaden itself is taken all through the mackerel season at some part of the American coast.

Q. Is it abundant within your observation?—A. Yes; it is almost the most abundant of our fish; indeed, it is a question which is most abundant, sea herring or menhaden.

Q. In regard to the catching of mackerel as affecting the supply and the probable diminution or increase of mackerel, what have you to tell the Commission about the mode of taking mackerel?—A. The mackerel is taken in a great variety of ways. At present it is taken by jig hook and by the net in some form. Formerly it was taken by means of hooks, as we do for bluefish, sailing backward and forward in a boat having a number of lines put from the vessel, and taking them when the vessel is under full speed. That method is still practiced on the coast of Europe, where mackerel are still taken in that way. Then it was found that by keeping the vessel comparatively motionless and throwing chum or chopped meat overboard mackerel could be brought up to the vessel, and that proved a much more efficient and thorough mode of capture. Nets were introduced, and many mackerel are now taken in gill-nets. Seines which are hauled to the shore have been introduced at some places on the coast of Nova Scotia, and a good many mackerel are taken in pounds and weirs, enormous quantities being taken in spring and fall on the New England coast in that way. The purse-seine is perhaps the most efficient and comprehensive method, and it is used by vessels.

Q. What is the proper depth of a purse-seine?—A. Twenty, twenty-five, or thirty fathoms deep.

Q. To be successful it has to have that depth?—A. It has to be deep, but it must be shallower than the water, or it will get entangled and torn.

Q. Do you know whether it is true that there must be that depth in order that the mackerel shall not discover it so quickly and escape?—A. I could not say; that is a fisherman's theory, which I know nothing about.

Q. With regard to the preparation of mackerel, what have you to say?—A. Nothing, except that they are used in increasing numbers fresh. The principal consumption in Europe is in fresh fish. The people there do not salt fish, or scarcely at all. They are put up in Europe, and I believe, to some extent, in Canada in cans; I do not think that is done in the United States.

Q. Of course, you have obtained information as to the manner in which the fish can be used by consumers; you have nothing to do with the mercantile side of the question?—A. No.

Q. You have had it presented to you. Do you find that the demand for fresh fish of all kinds is increasing?—A. I know the tendency at the present day is to substitute fresh fish for salt, in view of the improved methods of preparation and preservation, and the improved means of communication, railroads and steamboats coming to the shores and carrying away the fish and distributing it over an extent of thousands of miles and more in the interior, it bringing a much better price as fresh fish, and yielding a much better profit to the seller.

Q. Is that trade rapidly increasing?—A. It is increasing with enormous rapidity. Every year witnesses a great extension of the methods and increased improvements in the mode of preparation and the size of the refrigerators and their number.

Q. In regard to herring, what have you to say?—A. Herring is a fish of wide range. Though I cannot say it goes farther north than cod—perhaps it does not—it goes scarcely as far south on the American coast. I have not found any evidence of its being taken south of Block Island. It is very abundant off Block Island and Narragansett Bay in winter, but whether it is found farther south I am unable to say; it is found as far north as Labrador, and much farther.

Q. It is found from Block Island to the shores of Labrador in great abundance?—

A. Yes.

Q. It is pretty fairly distributed all along?—A. Yes; in some localities they are found in greater abundance at some periods of the year; but there is no part of the American coast, from Labrador to Block Island, where they are not found during a certain number of months.

Q. What are the movements of this fish?—A. They present migrations not so extensive and demonstrative as that of mackerel, but more so than those of cod. They probably move from their ground from time to time in search of food, and generally have definite places for spawning, to which they resort at different seasons of the year at each particular coast. While the spawn is deposited, as a general rule, in certain localities, it is sometimes a matter of uncertainty. The destruction of herring has been less in America than in Europe, where it has been very marked. There are extensive regions where formerly the herring business was carried on, from which they have entirely disappeared, so much so that they import herring from Scotland and America.

Q. As to the egg of the herring?—A. The egg is larger than that of the cod, and is about one-twentieth of an inch in diameter.

Q. What is the number to each fish?—A. About 30,000.

Q. Do you think they have any particular spawning-ground?—A. They have definite localities that are preferred by them. They spawn round the Magdalen Islands in great abundance, and in the bays of Newfoundland. The most extensive spawning-ground on the southern coast is round the southern end of Grand Manan, which is one of the most interesting and extensive spawning-grounds I know of. But they spawn also all along the reefs and rocky places of the New England coast as far as No Man's Land and Block Island.

Q. The yield of herring in New England, is it and can it be made very large?—A. I presume as many herring could be taken in New England, in seasons when they are able to be taken, as might be called for, if the price of them warranted it.

Q. Herring does not bring much in the market?—A. I believe not; they are taken in both spring and fall, but they are most abundant in the fall.

Q. I should like to put one or two questions to you bearing a good deal on this subject which the Commission has before it, respecting the kinds of fish which can be and are used in the United States. Leaving out cod, mackerel, and herring, will you tell the Commission what has been discovered regarding the kinds of fish that are used as a substitute for mackerel—salted fish, I mean?—A. There is a great variety in vast abundance of many kinds of fish all along the coast of the United States, from Saint John's River, Florida, and farther south, to the Bay of Fundy, and many of those could be utilized to very great advantage if there was a demand. They are taken in very large quantities and consumed as fresh fish, but they are not prepared in large quantities, with the exception of the Southern mullet.

Q. How far north is mullet found?—A. It straggles as far as Cape Cod; it is quite abundant at some seasons on the south side of New England, but not sufficiently so for marketable purposes, but off the coast of Virginia and off the Carolinas, and all the way down to the extremity of Florida, the mullet is in quantities scarcely credible. They are taken and sold in great numbers; many thousands of barrels are put up, and if there was any speedy call for them they could be furnished. I presume I am safe in saying that one million barrels of mullet could be furnished annually from the south shore of Chesapeake Bay to the south end of Florida, if they were called for.

Q. How far has the mullet come into the market now?—A. The mullet does not come into the Northern market at all, but in North Carolina, South Carolina, and Georgia it fills the markets at the present time, excluding other kinds of imported fish. In former years there was a great demand for herring and mackerel, but the mullet is supplying the markets because they are sold fresher and supplied at much

lower price, and they are considered by the Southern people a much superior article of food.

Q. Is it preferred to mackerel as a salted fish?—A. The persons familiar with mackerel and with mullet from whom I have made inquiries—I never tasted salt mullet—give the preference to mullet. It is a fatter, sweeter, and better fish, and of rather larger size. They grade up to 90 to a barrel of 200 pounds, and go down to three-quarters of a pound, and as a salt fish the preference is given by all from whom I have inquired to the mullet.

Q. Do you think the failure of the mackerel market in the Southern and Southwestern States is largely attributable to the introduction of mullet?—A. I cannot say that, but I imagine it must have a very decided influence.

Q. Can the mullet be caught as easily as mackerel?—A. More easily. It is entirely a shore fish, and is taken with seines hauled up on the banks by men who have no capital, but who are able to command a row-boat with which to lay out their seines, and they sometimes catch 100 barrels a day per man, and sometimes as many as 500 barrels have been taken at a single haul. The capital invested is only the boat, the seine, perhaps 100 or 200 yards long, the salt necessary for preserving the fish, and splitting boards and barrels.

Q. Can pounds be used?—A. They have not been used, and I doubt whether they could be used. Pounds are not available in the sandy regions of the South.

Q. They are taken by seining?—A. Yes, seines can be used. This work is entirely prosecuted by natives of the coast, and about two-thirds of the coast population are employed in the capture of these fish.

Q. Then the business has grown very much?—A. It has grown very rapidly.

Q. When was it first known to you as a fish for the market?—A. I never knew anything about it until 1872.

Q. Then it has been known during only five years?—A. I cannot say; it has been known to me that length of time.

Q. During that time the business has very much increased?—A. I am so informed; I cannot speak personally. All my information of it is from reports made to me in replies to circulars issued in 1872 and 1873. I have not issued a mullet circular since that time, when I issued a special circular asking information regarding the mullet.

Q. Then it is your opinion that the mullet has become, to some extent, and will become, an important source of food supply?—A. It is destined, I suppose, to be a very formidable rival and competitor of the mackerel. I know in 1872 a single county in North Carolina put up 70,000 barrels of mullet, a single county of five States covering the mullet region.

Q. Repeat that statement.—A. I say 70,000 barrels of mullet were packed in Carteret County, North Carolina, in 1872—one county in the States of Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia and Florida, where mullet comes in great abundance during two or three months of the year. It is during the spawning season of the mullet that it is taken in this quantity, and mullet roes form a special delicacy over which every Southerner exults. It is a separate business, the roes being smoked and salted and sold in large quantities.

Q. Perhaps a reason—to get into the region of political economy—why mullet-fishing was not prosecuted formerly, was that the Southern people were not fishing-people under the slave system?—A. They probably had not a proper method of taking them. They used more casting nets than seines.

Q. State to the Commission what mode of fishing and what kinds of fish are caught on the south of the New England coast, south of Cape Cod. Is it not a great region for fish?—A. The variety of fish taken on the shores south of Cape Cod is very great, and constitutes a very important element in the food resources of the country. Many of them are fish of very great value as food, some selling as high as one dollar per pound, every pound of that fish that can be brought into market bringing never less than 60 cents and up to one dollar per pound. Other fish range from 20 cents, 35

cents, and 40 cents per pound. Others from 20 cents to 25 cents, very few bringing less than 8 and 10 cents a pound as fresh fish.

Q. What kinds of fish are they which bring the high price of a dollar a pound?—
A. The pompano, which is the highest-priced fish.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. To what size does it grow?—A. Three pounds is the maximum. It is more generally one pound. The pompano brings one dollar per pound when it is freshly caught. Sometimes when it is brought to New York and kept for a long time the price may come down. I know one occasion when it was sold at 10 cents a pound; but the fish was not marketable and should not have been sold. The next best fish is Spanish mackerel, a fish of remarkable excellence.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. In New York market at the proper season what does it bring?—A. I don't suppose it is ever sold under 25 cents per pound, and from that to 40 cents.

Q. Is that a mackerel?—A. It belongs to the mackerel family, and weighs about 3 pounds. There is the cero, a kind of Spanish mackerel, which goes up to 15 pounds. Those are all found from Cape Cod to Florida along the entire coast. There is the scup, which occurs from Florida to Cape Cod in great abundance.

Q. The scup is found in great abundance off the south coast of Massachusetts and Rhode Island?—A. Yes. There is also sea bass, which is one of the finest of the American fish, and is worth from 18 cents to 25 cents per pound.

Q. How many pounds do they average in weight?—A. From 1 to 4 pounds; 3 pounds is a large fish.

Q. They are found in abundance on the south coast of New England?—A. Yes; very abundant. There is also the kingfish and the bonito, which is a very important fish.

Q. There is a fish of that character extending from Block Island away down to Cape Hatteras?—A. It is one of the same family. It weighs up to 5 pounds. I have seen five thousand of those fish taken at a single time in a fishing pound at Menemsha Bight. There is the bluefish, which is the *pièce de résistance*. There is the squeteague; of that fish I have seen 25,000 pounds taken at a haul.

Q. The bluefish is a great fish in the market?—A. It is the principal fresh fish during the summer season on the coast of the United States from Cape Cod to North Carolina.

Q. Caught all along the shores?—A. All along the coast, being most abundant in the summer season toward Cape Cod, and in winter in North Carolina.

Q. There is a great drift through Vineyard Sound?—A. There is a numerous catch.

Q. Are not the people on the southern coast of Massachusetts, and on the coast of Rhode Island, now very much engaged in catching fresh fish?—A. Very largely, taking them in pounds and gill-nets, and other modes of capture.

Q. Is this a part of the development of the fresh fish market?—A. Yes. Since bluefish has come back to the coast it has constituted an enormous element in the supply of fresh fish; it is not the controlling element, but it is the largest single element, although combining the striped bass, squeteague, mullet, and scup, they considerably outnumber the bluefish. [Photographs of the fish referred to were exhibited.]

Q. What about tautog?—A. It is an important fish, but is not in such immense abundance. While you talk of tautog being caught in thousands of pounds, you talk of others by hundreds of thousands or by millions.

Q. Pounds are very common on the American coast?—A. It constitutes the principal mode of summer fishing from round Cape Cod as far west as Long Island. Nearly all the fish taken on that coast are caught in the pounds. The small tunny is a fish which of late years has come into notice, and it is believed to have disturbed the mackerel and menhaden this year. It was never recorded till I found it in 1871 in Martha's Vineyard, where it was in enormous numbers. It is a fish weighing about 25 pounds, and it is something like the horse mackerel, but they never grow more than

25 pounds. Not unfrequently 500 or 1,000 of them are taken in a single night in one of the pounds, but the people make no use of them and consider them valueless. They sell the fish weighing 25 pounds for 25 cents. It is a coarse fish and very dark meat, but still it is a food resource when other fish are not taken. These fish are found in the Mediterranean, where they are very much looked after and bring very good prices, they being specially salted and put up in oil. The American tunny is undistinguishable from the European, though efforts have been made to separate them.

Q. The pound-fishing which has come into general use in the southern part of New England, what is its effect on the supply of fish?—A. That is a question which I think will require a longer period of years than we have had for its definite determination. In 1871 I made my first inquiries into these pounds, and satisfied myself then that they must have a positive influence upon the abundance of fish, in view of the concurrent enormous destruction of bluefish. I considered the bluefish was the greatest agency in the destruction of our food-fishes. Its relation to scup and squeague has long been established—that when bluefish are abundant the other fish are rare, and the moment bluefish diminish the other fish become enormously common. The squeague in 1862 was unknown as a fish east of the waters of New Jersey except in small numbers, and was not found in Martha's Vineyard or Buzzard's Bay. In 1872, ten years subsequently, so plentiful were they that I know myself of 5,000 fish being taken at a single haul, averaging five pounds each fish. The bluefish then began to diminish, and from that time were much less abundant than in 1850 or 1860. Those pounds and the bluefish together I considered produced the decrease in the abundance of scup, sea bass, and tautog that has been so much complained of. I urged very strongly, and I still maintain my view, on the legislatures of Massachusetts and Rhode Island the propriety of exercising some sort of restriction upon the indiscriminate use of this apparatus. I recommend that one day and two nights, that is, from Saturday night, or, if possible, from Friday night till Monday morning, should be established as a close time during which those fish should not be taken by any of those devices, thus giving the fish a chance to get into the spawning-grounds inshore, thereby securing their perpetuity.

I was quite satisfied in my own mind that unless something of this kind was done very serious results would happen. Very much to my disgust, I must admit, the next year, even with all the abundance of those engines, the young scup came in in quantities so great as to exceed anything the oldest fishermen remembered, and thousands and tens of thousands of barrels of what was called dollar scup were sold. They were so thick in the pounds and so mixed with the fish that the owners could scarcely pick out the marketable fish, and consequently had to let large portions of the contents of the pounds go away. Since then scup has been very much more abundant than it was when I wrote my book and report.

Q. How do you account for this great increase?—A. I think those were scup, belonging to further south, which took a northern trip to northern waters and established themselves there. But I do urge in the most earnest manner the propriety of some restriction being placed on the pounds. I have not changed my views, although the evil has not arrived as I thought it would, and there are indications of some other agency; whether it be the diminution of the bluefish which permits the scup to increase or not I cannot say.

Q. Is it true the bluefish is diminishing?—A. It is not by any means so abundant as it was, very much to the regret of all people who catch them, either for market or for sport.

Q. Can you remember the time when there was no bluefish on the American coast?—A. I cannot. I know we have the record of the fact, and I know many persons who can remember it. Bluefish was absent from the American coast for sixty years, during which time there was not a single bluefish to be found on the coast.

Q. You think the pounds should be dealt with as a matter for regulation and not for banishment?—A. I don't think the market would be amply supplied without

them, and I don't think it would be expedient to prohibit them. I think a certain amount of regulation, such as I have recommended, would be a great deal better for the fish and the fishermen. The disadvantage of the pounds is that they glut the market at times, so that there is no sale for the fish and fish are wasted, and by the adoption of a close time not only will it secure proper spawning of the fish, but also equalize consumption.

Q. There were some matters with regard to herring, in regard to which I did not ask you fully yesterday. Will you state to the Commission about the spawning-grounds of herring especially? I do not care for anything outside of the American coast.—A. The herring spawn along the whole coast of the United States, from the Bay of Fundy to No Man's Land, which is a small island between Block Island and Martha's Vineyard. I have specimens of spawn from almost all the localities between those two points, and I am informed they also spawn around Block Island; but I have never seen any evidence myself.

Q. But you know as to the fact?—A. I know it is so from testimony and reports.

Q. Do the eggs of the herring lodge on the bottom?—A. The herring is almost the one—is, I think, the only one—of our important sea fish the eggs of which are adherent; that is to say, when discharged, it falls to the bottom and adheres to the sea-weed, gravel, and rock. Generally it is scattered; but not unfrequently a great part of the spawn of the fish will be aggregated into a mass of the size of a walnut or hickory nut, but more generally they are scattered and attached singly or by twos and threes to sea-weed. I have here specimens of the eggs in the adherent form, some of which I dragged up at the southern end of Grand Manan.

Q. Are the spawning-grounds extended along the coast all the way?—A. Yes; all the way.

Q. And are very numerous?—A. There is no reason to suppose there is any part of the coast at which they are wanting. They are specially abundant about Cutler, in Maine, and about some of the islands off Penobscot Bay, about Cape Elizabeth, Portsmouth, off Newburyport, and particularly along the edge of the coast from north and east of the entrance of Massachusetts Bay. They also spawn inside of Cape Cod Bay, and all along the south coast of this region to No Man's Land, as I have already mentioned. The spawning season is later and later as you go south. On the coast of the United States the herring spawns on the fall of the temperature, just as the salmon, cod, and trout do—unlike the shad and mackerel, which spawn at a rising temperature. The moment the water along our coast gets to a certain degree of temperature, then the herring is incited to the act of spawning. I might say in completion of this point that herring spawns in the spring in Bay St. Lawrence and Newfoundland. It spawns in early summer at Grand Manan in July, August, and September. It spawns at the end of September in Eastern Maine, and it spawns in October off Boston, and does not spawn until November and sometimes December at No Man's Land.

Q. Making a difference of many months?—A. Yes; a difference of from six to eight months.

Q. Describe the modes by which herring are caught on the coast of the United States.—A. They are caught principally by weirs, pounds, and gill-nets on our coast. They are caught with seines largely in Bay St. Lawrence and Newfoundland; but the large, full-grown, spawning herring are usually taken in gill-nets on or near the spawning-ground. A very large number are taken on the whole coast of Maine and in the Bay of Fundy in weirs; but the great body of these are smaller herring, and are not used as fresh fish.

Q. How is it with weir-fishing?—A. The weir-fishing is generally conducted in Maine, and to some extent inside of Cape Cod to the north. South of Cape Cod they are more generally taken in pounds, but also in gill-nets.

Q. How are they taken along the Massachusetts coast?—A. They are taken, generally, in gill-nets in the fall. The regular pounds are usually not down as late as the herring season, but in spring large numbers are taken in the pounds.

Q. How do you feel sure that this statement about spawning on the coast is correct?—A. By actual capture of the fish in the spawning season, and by dredging up their eggs from the bottom with apparatus we use for such purposes.

Q. Is herring a very common fish on the United States coast?—A. It is exceedingly abundant. It is not utilized at all to the extent of the capacity. The herring is not a very favorite fish. It is a cheap fish; and as there are so many better fish on the coast, it is not very marketable for food. It is sold in great quantities, but at very low prices, and is used only by the poorer classes of the community. Of course, it is used for bait; but as fresh fish it is very seldom seen on the tables of the well-to-do people.

Q. Is it dried and pickled?—A. They are pickled to some extent. Some are smoked. A great many are worked up in the form of bloaters, and in this form it is very much sought after.

Q. You have been at the places where the business is carried on?—A. I have seen 20 or 30 large boats, of a capacity of perhaps 500 barrels or more, filled with herring, lying at the wharf at Boston at one time. They are boats probably from 4 to 10 tons.

Q. Market boats?—A. They are open boats, known as herring boats, and the coast now is lined with the boats with gill-nets catching herring for the fall trade.

Q. Have you anything to say about the predaceous fish, such as the shark and dogfish? Do you think they do a great deal of harm to the food-fish?—A. They constitute a very important factor in the question of the abundance of fish on our coast. They destroy enormous weights and quantities of all the useful fish, and in proportion as they increase in numbers the food-fish diminish, and *vice versa*. They perform the same function as bluefish; they are constantly in the pursuit of other fish and destroying them.

Q. There is no probability of changing that relation which fish seem to bear to one another?—A. They all have the relation of attack, defense, pursuit, and flight.

Q. But, notwithstanding that, I suppose they belong to what you call the balance of nature?—A. The balances of nature are such that it is extremely difficult to say what will be the effect on the fisheries of destroying or multiplying a particular stock of fish. The sharks, for instance, are destroying great quantities of food-fish. A new enterprise has just been started, and will be opened in the course of a few weeks, to utilize the sharks, porpoises, dogfish, and tunnies. An establishment expects to work up twelve million pounds annually of those fish, for which heretofore there has not been a market. They are caught in great quantities on the shores, but not utilized, and now there is to be a market for them, and the parties offer the same price for them as they do for menhaden.

Q. Where is the company started?—A. At Wood's Holl, Mass. The company expects to keep two or three steamers constantly traversing the coast from Block Island to Penobscot Bay, or Bay of Fundy, and the company advertises that it will take all dogfish, sharks, porpoises, blackfish, and other offal that may be offered to it, up to the amount, I think, of 20 or 25 tons a day. By a new process the oil will be extracted without heat, leaving the meat entirely free of grease, and, when it is dried, it will be ground up to make what they call fish flour, or meal which can be used for fertilizing purposes or food, as you please. The same substance is made from cod in Norway and is an article of food. It makes a nice form of food, and is used as fish-cakes and other preparations.

Q. It can be made up like flour?—A. Yes, and can be mixed up without any difficulty. The effect of the abstraction of twelve million pounds of those predaceous fish will undoubtedly be very great. Whether, as those fish eat bluefish, it may not allow bluefish to multiply, and in that way restore the balance again, it is impossible to say; but if it was to take bluefish also, we would relax very largely the pressure on eatable fish, and they would necessarily increase.

Q. Is the philosophy of that substantially that when one kind of predaceous fish

becomes very numerous, and is destroying useful fish, it either disappears in time, or by what we regard as the regular course of nature and the work of man, that fish diminishes, or is exterminated, and others take its place?—A. After they have eaten up everything, they will start out and go somewhere else. Whenever they have made their favorite food scarce they go somewhere else. So it is a very serious question as to what had better be done, no matter what promise there may be in regard to altering the relations willfully and purposely between the different forms of the animals of the sea. If you take them for food, you allow the consequences to come as they may, but any question of protecting one kind of fish, or destroying or exterminating others, should always be considered with a great deal of care, and from a great many points of view that do not strike the mind or attention at first thought.

Q. To undertake to regulate the relations of fish beyond shoal water where you can fish with nets, seines, and pounds, would be impracticable?—A. It would be very difficult, indeed, and the effect would probably be very trifling.

Q. You spoke yesterday of the fish of the Southern States, the fisheries of which in the new order of things are being rather more developed by greater diversity of industry, and so forth; can you mention any other fish that are coming into use?—A. There are a great many species, probably not less than fifty, all having a definite value as an article of food, and all caught and consumed on the coast, or sent in limited quantities either to the northern markets or to Cuba, that could be taken into consideration, but perhaps the capture of the fish that takes the rank of fisheries relates more particularly to the mullet, menhaden, striped bass, and bluefish. There is a very extensive fishery of bluefish on the southern coast. The bluefish, after leaving the northern waters, spends a certain time on the coast of Virginia and North Carolina, and by the time it gets back there it has attained enormous dimensions, the fishes being generally from 12 to 15 pounds, at which size they are found only casually and occasionally on the northern coast. It is not at all an uncommon thing for one fishery of a single locality to take 3,000 bluefish averaging 12 pounds each fish.

Q. What do you mean by one fishery?—A. A single station at one particular point, the fishing being controlled by one man or firm. An enormous number of bluefish are sent late in fall and in early winter to the northern markets.

Q. So that when bluefish leave the New England coast they do not disappear altogether from the American coast?—A. Not at all. It disappears some time in February, and where it goes we cannot tell.

Q. It disappears from the southern coast?—A. Yes; a small school of bluefish is found all the year south to Florida, but the large school of bluefish usually disappears in February, and, indeed, I may say we never see it again. The fish, as they make their appearance in spring, are smaller fish.

Q. Do they first appear on the south coast of New England?—A. On first appearing on the coast of Carolina and Virginia, they come in something like the mackerel, only they have a rather more coastwise travel because they do not spawn on the northern coast. Probably the big bluefish go out somewhere to spawn, but what becomes of them, whether they spawn themselves out to a condition of nonentity I cannot say. We do not see them; they may go to Africa, or the Mauritius, for bluefish are found all the world over; but whether they go to any other portion of the world from the United States I cannot say.

Q. What have you to tell the Commission about menhaden at the South?—A. The menhaden is a very important fish on the south coast as an article of food. It is caught, salted, and pickled, and to some extent used in the country. There is quite a large export of menhaden to the West Indies from the Southern States.

Q. Is it used fresh?—A. It is salted and pickled; it is also eaten fresh very largely, and considered a very capital article of food.

Q. You have eaten it yourself?—A. Yes; it is a sweet fish, quite as good as herring, but rather more bony; the bones are, however, more adherent to the skeleton. You can prepare menhaden by maceration, so that the greater part of the bones will stick

to the vertebral column instead of being loose and lying about the muscular parts, as in herrings.

Q. It is also salted in the South?—A. Yes.

Q. Is there now a large business in menhaden, or is there likely to be?—A. It is a business capable of almost any extension for which there is a demand. There is no limit apparently, speaking in reasonable terms, to the number that can be taken, any more than there is in the North. There is nothing like the same quantity taken in the Southern as in the Northern waters. It is taken somewhat for the manufacture of oil, but the business is not fully developed.

Q. What other fish did you mention in the South?—A. The mullet, menhaden, blue-fish, and striped bass to some extent, but striped bass is more an estuary fish coming into brackish waters, and can scarcely, with propriety, be mentioned in this connection.

Q. What have you to say about the drum?—A. It is a fish that can be taken in almost any desired quantity. It is obtained weighing up to 100 to 120 pounds, but it generally weighs from 10 to 20 pounds. There is the channel bass, which can be also taken in any desired quantities. It is entirely a sea fish, and is caught in the rapid channel-ways between the shores and islands on the coast.

Q. Especially, perhaps, in South Carolina?—A. Only stragglers come on the eastern coast, but it is found in enormous abundance from North Carolina down to the southern extremity of Florida, and in the Gulf of Mexico.

Q. Can the fish be salted for the market?—A. I don't think it has ever been tried; it is worth almost too much as fresh fish.

Q. Is the fish called red snapper there?—A. Yes; it is very abundant on the coast of Florida. It is a large fish, of a blood-red color, as red as goldfish, and weighs from 5 to 20 pounds. It is caught in great numbers in the winter season, and taken alive to Cuba. The Connecticut fishermen, after they have finished their halibut and cod summer and autumn fishing, go down to Florida, and spend two or three months catching red snappers and other fish and taking them to Cuba, selling them as fresh fish, alive. It is taken in the wells of vessels, and is sold at very high prices in Havana. Sometimes, on the return trip, they take a load to New York, and sell them in that market alive.

Q. In regard to pounds, they must be constructed in muddy ground?—A. In almost any ground, except sand, because the sand shifts.

Q. To construct a pound, you drive in piles or posts, and then make a straight line of net-work right up?—A. Yes. [Diagram of a pond exhibited.] The stakes are driven right down with a pile-driver, and from stake to stake is extended a wall of netting, which extends down to the bottom and makes a barrier for the fish. They are held down by a chain. There is also the heart, bowl, and pocket. The fish coming along the coast strike the wall of netting, and very naturally, in endeavoring to skirt it, they turn seaward and go along till they get into this receptacle either way. A fish never turns a corner, and when it gets within the netting it swims round and round, but never goes back again. Then gradually it is led into the inner inclosure, and the same process goes on; the fish swim round and round, but never find their way out back through the opening. You may leave the pound for a week, and you will have there all the fish that have come in, except the striped bass, which is the only fish you cannot cheat in a pound; and you very rarely take them in that way. Then when they come to haul the pounds, they throw a gate of netting across the opening, and in the bowl the netting extends over the bottom and comes up the side. They gather up the end and haul it over the boat, and gradually concentrate the fish in a corner, and turn them or throw them over into the permanent pocket, where the fish are kept until ready for market. Fish are kept there sometimes two or three weeks or more for a demand in the market; if there is a glut in the market, they may keep perhaps 1,000, 2,000, or 3,000 fish in one of these inclosures.

Q. How is the pocket formed?—A. It is a net-work, fastened down to the bottom

by a chain, so that it will touch the bottom and not permit fish to go under it. [Diagram of trap exhibited.] The trap is only used in the waters of Rhode Island, and is used for scup, tautog, and sea-bass. There are no stakes used to the trap. It is a rectangular space of netting held at the corners by anchors. The fish go along the leaders and pass into the receptacle. The trap requires constant watching, or the fish could go in and out. The moment a school of fish enter, the netting at the end is raised. They pursue the same mode of emptying, and turn the fish into the pocket, as with pounds.

Q. The difference is that in the case of pounds, it is not necessary that boats should be employed to visit them frequently?—A. In stormy weather you sometimes cannot get to a pound for a week. In the case of traps they are visited three or four or half a dozen times a day. When the boats off shore see a school of fish enter the trap, they follow and take it whether large or small. [Diagram of weir exhibited.] This weir consists of a small circle of brush or boards, with two wings and a spring. The fish come into the weir at high tide, and as the water falls they are left in a cavity inside the weir, and are taken out in dip-nets. There are a dozen or twenty different forms of constructing weirs.

Q. What is the estimated cost of a pound?—A. \$1,000 will pay for the construction of a very good pound, including the entire equipment. A pound is managed by from two to four men, while a trap requires two boats and about seven men.

Q. The trap is more expensive?—A. About the same cost as the pound, because, although it has no stakes, yet it requires to be of very considerable size and needs anchors. I should presume that the first cost of the two would not be very different.

Q. And what is the cost of a weir?—A. It is a simple thing. The cost merely represents the lumber and labor.

Q. That is a permanent erection?—A. Yes; the others are all taken up; the traps are only kept down six weeks in the year; the pounds are down for from two months to five, and at the end of the season they use an apparatus to pull the stakes out of the water, and then pack them on shore for next season.

Q. What are the kinds of fish taken in the great lakes?—A. There is a great variety of fish taken there, but the most important fish, as a matter of business, are the white-fish, lake herring, lake trout, wall-eyed pike, muskalonge, sturgeon, and a variety of others. The most important, however, are whitefish, herring, and trout.

Q. What are the methods of taking them?—A. They are taken very largely by pounds, which are constructed on a very large scale, and much more elaborate and expensive than on the coast. They are taken by gill-nets very largely, and by seines under certain circumstances. At a certain time of the year, whitefish can be taken in great quantities in seines, and kept in pounds until ready for market.

Q. Are those built and constructed to a great extent along both the Canadian and American shores?—A. I presume they are used in Canada, though I cannot say. I know they are on our own coasts. There is quite a number of these pounds worked by Canadians on the American coast.

Q. Have you any statistics respecting the lake fishery for the years 1876 and 1877?—A. I have only partial statistics for 1877. I published the statistics in detail in my report for 1872, and I am now having statistics for 1877 collected, and will have them I suppose by the end of the season.

Q. 1872 represents but faintly the present state of things. Can you tell us how it was in 1872?—A. In 1872 the American production of fish in the great lakes was 32,250,000 pounds. That quantity of fish was taken, but how much more I cannot say. Those were marketed at Buffalo, Cleveland, Chicago, and many other stations.

Q. Does that include the Canadian catch?—A. I presume there is no Canadian catch in that amount. Those are the figures as they were obtained by my agents, from the fishermen and dealers.

Q. You obtained them from the dealers in the large cities?—A. Yes; and the fish-

ermen at the grounds. This year I have had every station on the American side of the lakes visited and canvassed.

Q. You have steady communication with and reports from the dealers?—A. I have reports only when I send specially after them, as I did in 1872 and am doing this year.

Q. How far have you got in your inquiry this year?—A. I have only a partial return from Chicago.

Q. What does that show?—A. The total marketing of salted fish in Chicago up to the middle of October amounted to 100,000 half-barrels, with about 20,000 half-barrels expected for the rest of the season, or equal to 60,000 barrels of those fish for Chicago alone for the present year. The corresponding supply of barrels of fish in 1872 was 12,600 in Chicago, so that the Chicago trade has increased from 12,600 in 1872 to 60,000 in 1877, or almost fivefold— $4\frac{1}{2}$. The total catch of fish in the lakes in 1872 was 32,250,000 pounds. If the total catch has increased in the same ratio as that market has done at Chicago, it will give 156,000,000 pounds of fish taken on the American side of the lakes for the present year.

Q. That, of course, cannot be a matter of certainty?—A. No.

Q. What other large central markets for lake fish are there besides Chicago?—A. Chicago and Buffalo are the most important. Cleveland takes a large quantity, but Chicago and Buffalo control the market. Detroit takes the fish to some extent, but it is not such a convenient shipping point.

Q. What proportion does that bear to the fish of Canada?—A. I cannot say. I may say, in regard to this point, that on the same ratio the total product of the salt fish from the lakes in the American market would be 48,546,000 pounds. Of course, those figures are comparisons, and the estimates may be fallacious. Chicago may have a larger share of the lake trade in proportion, or may have a smaller share; other places may have crowded on it, or it may have gained on them.

Q. You expect to have full returns?—A. I shall have them probably in the course of one month. I have not heard from my agent who is visiting all the Canadian stations and fishing points on the American coasts.

Q. You expect to ascertain the whole catch of the lakes for 1877?—A. Yes, with great precision. I have here an item which may perhaps be interesting in regard to the price of those fish. The ruling prices of fish on the 15th October in Chicago, were \$7.50 per barrel for whitefish, \$5.50 for salmon trout, and \$3.75 for lake herring. Those are the prices paid to the captors for the fish by the merchants; that is, before they are handled and any profit put upon them.

Q. In regard to the increase in the consumption of fish, are any as beneficial means being adopted in Canada to maintain the supply?—A. Both Canada and the States bordering on the great lakes have striven very efficiently to prevent what would otherwise have been a great danger to the supply of an enormous amount of fish. They are hatching whitefish by artificial means to the extent of a great many millions annually. The two countries are not co-operating but concurring in this business, and probably this year they may introduce as many as twenty, thirty, or more millions of young fish into the waters, and that must necessarily have a very important influence on the maintenance of the fisheries. They have not done anything yet in regard to lake herring, but whitefish, which is a much more valuable fish, is being carefully guarded.

Q. What States of the American Union are engaged in the breeding of whitefish?—A. Ohio, Michigan, and Wisconsin.

Q. What has been the success generally of the fish-breeding system by artificial means?—A. It is now being practiced to such an extent in Canada and the United States as to show it is a very efficient mode of preventing the diminution of fish, and even of increasing the supply. It has passed the region of experiment, and it is a positive fact as shown by the large appropriations made on both sides of the border for this purpose. It commands the respect and consideration of men of all parties, and in our own country, at least, there is no difficulty in getting all appropriations that can profitably be expended to secure the result.

Q. It extends not only to the fish of the great lakes, but to river fish?—A. To salmon, shad, striped bass, and alewives.

Q. You find as the result that a much larger proportion of the eggs are turned into fish than when left to natural exposures and dangers?—A. An ordinary estimate in regard to shad is that under natural spawning 995 out of 1,000 eggs perish without producing a young fish able to feed for itself, and that you get five young fish which reach the stage of ability to feed for themselves; that is, after their fins are properly formed, and the fish is three-eighths of an inch in length. They have then passed the ordinary perils of infancy, and are able to take care of themselves. With artificial spawning, a fish culturist who could not bring 950 out of 1,000 eggs to that state would be considered as ignorant of his business, except some unusual circumstance that could not be controlled should come in to interfere.

Q. Can you tell the Commission how many traps and pounds there are in the southern part of New England, Connecticut, Rhode Island, and Massachusetts, at Martha's Vineyard, and all along to Cape Cod?—A. There are 22 traps on the south side of Cape Cod, in the bays and basins about Chatham; 9 in Vineyard Sound; 30 at Buzzard's Bay; 3 at Block Island; 30 in Narragansett Bay. This year there have been 94 traps and pounds on the southern coast of Rhode Island and Massachusetts, exclusive of Connecticut. I have not the figures for Connecticut here. This number represents the traps and pounds from Narragansett Bay to the eastern end of Cape Cod.

Q. Have they been increasing?—A. Yes; they are very measurably greater in number than they were when I made my first census.

Q. Can you state the number of men who are employed on those traps?—A. The number of men required to man the traps is 436, the traps requiring seven men each, taking 301.

Q. Your agent would know each of those traps?—A. I have the name of the owner, and the catch of the greater portion of them.

Q. Can you tell the Commission the catch of those traps and pounds?—A. I have here a table of the yield of that number of pounds in 1876.

Q. Give the result.—A. For some of the species the figures are very accurate, and for others they are estimated to some extent, but this estimate is essentially a record of the year, so far as they have reported it themselves, corrected by the personal observation of one at least of my men, who has taken a standard pound, and meted it every day himself, and enumerated the catch and the kinds of fish. The total catch for 1876 included flounders, tautog, mackerel, Spanish mackerel, pompano, butter-fish, squeteague, scup, sea-bass, striped bass, bluefish, menhadens, eels, cod, alewives, and herring. The total catch for the year was 34,274,350 pounds. That is from Narragansett Bay to the eastern end of Cape Cod, on the south coast of Massachusetts and Rhode Island only.

Q. Not the western part of Rhode Island?—A. It includes the whole of Narragansett Bay. It does not include Long Island, where there are a great many pounds, or the most westerly part of Rhode Island.

Q. Are all these pounds of fish capable of being used, and are used for food?—A. There is a large catch of menhadens in that fifteen millions.

Q. How many miles of coast-line does that catch represent?—A. About 250 miles of coast-line.

Q. Have you made up a calculation of the ratio of the catch per mile?—A. I have the ratio of 137,097 pounds of fish to the line or mile.

Q. And to the men?—A. The ratio of the catch is 78,610 to each man. The total value of the weir catch at the lowest wholesale rate is \$847,900; at the lowest retail rate, \$1,472,438; at a mean rate between the two, which perhaps more exactly represents the value, \$1,160,168. That, however, is the catch of that region only with traps and pounds; there is also a very large catch with hand-lines, gill-nets, and seines. This is for but 94 weirs and traps. The aggregate catch of the entire fishery on the south coast of Rhode Island and Massachusetts is 45,917,750 pounds, of the

mean value of \$1,875,840, which gives a ratio of 133,671 pounds per linear mile, and equivalent to \$7,504 to the linear mile. The yield in the trap and pound fishery is over 78,610 pounds to the man, of a money value of \$2,661, being the product of each man's labor for an average not exceeding four months. That sum, to bring it to the annual amount, will have to be multiplied by three; each man thus would produce \$8,000 worth a year by this mode of fishing.

Q. You do not mean to say that each man makes that amount?—A. No; but that is the ratio of fish to the man. Those pounds are generally owned by at least one of the men who run them, who sometimes hire what additional assistance they require; perhaps, however, in half of the cases the owners manage the pounds and have no division of profits.

Q. Those statistics were prepared to show the amount of the fish, including the fresh fish as well as those salted?—A. None of these are salted except such of the salted menhaden as is for food. They do not enter into the returns of pickled fish. These fresh fish go almost exclusively to New York, very few to Boston.

Q. It seems strange that you should be able to know the amount of fresh fish that passes into the great city and what is caught every day. What method have you adopted to ascertain those facts?—A. The entire fresh-fish trade of New York is confined to nineteen firms which form the Wholesale Dealers' Association, to whose books and figures I have had access through and by the assistance of the large wholesale and retail dealer in New York, Mr. Blackford, who has just taken great interest in my investigations and is a very hearty coadjutor. He has succeeded in interesting those dealers, and I have just prepared a series of blanks in which I hope to have the dealers record all the catches of fish every day and give me the returns.

Q. You have no doubt from your relations with the dealers who control the market that you know substantially the catch?—A. I cannot say that I know the maximum catch on the coast, but I know I have reason to rely upon the figures of the fish that is actually marketed and comes into the hands of the wholesale men.

Q. A large amount escapes notice?—A. Yes; all the local catch, the catch of fishermen which goes for their own benefit and is consumed on the spot; the catch consumed in seaport towns and villages cannot be included in this enumeration.

Q. Are these caught within the treaty limits?—A. All those fish which I have mentioned are caught east of Cape May.

Q. Northeast?—A. Yes; and all caught close to the shore, by traps or pounds, usually within 100 to 300 yards of the shore, or by gill-nets and hand-lines, used by men also from the shore.

Q. The whole fishery, with pounds and nets, that goes on from the shore, and with hook and line for market fish, all comes within the treaty limits?—A. Yes, of course, the mullet and winter bluefish are south of the treaty limits; but all the fish are practically within the treaty limits.

Q. And in those fisheries the Canadians have the same rights as Americans?—A. The Canadians have the same rights there as we have. It does not include the fishery, north of Cape Cod Bay and round to Eastport.

Q. Can you make any comparison of the corresponding ratio per mile, or otherwise, of the Canadian fisheries?—A. I do not think I could, because I believe the returns of the Canadian fisheries are not so large as they should be. I do not believe the Canadian returns are in proportion to the actual catch. I therefore think a comparative statement would be fallacious, and I would rather not make it.

Q. Some Canada tables have been published of the fisheries of 1876, including, perhaps, cod and herring?—A. Those relate to all the fisheries. This estimate I submit is for weir-fishing on a limited coast.

Q. The Canadian returns show a total amount of \$11,000,000?—A. I think the total estimate of the Canadian fisheries for 1876 is between \$11,000,000 and \$12,000,000.

Q. If you put that of the United States at \$50,000,000, would that be a low or high estimate?—A. I think we could figure up over \$40,000,000 without any difficulty; that is, for all the fisheries.

Q. Including the lake fisheries?—A. Including hake, ring, and shell-fish. Our oyster fisheries are worth \$30,000,000 a year.

Q. That is nearly double the entire Canadian return?—A. Perhaps. There are \$3,000,000 worth of oysters put in cans in Baltimore yearly.

Q. They are all included in the Canadian returns?—A. I think so. Those industries with them are not so important as ours. Our off-shore codfish, lake and river shad, salmon, herring, lobster, crab, oyster, and clam fisheries are included.

Q. Now, with reasonable legislation to limit certain methods of fishing, is there in your judgment any danger to the existence of the inshore, coast, and lake fisheries?—A. I think that the lake fisheries would have been exhausted and greatly destroyed in a comparatively limited number of years but for the timely warning taken by Canada and the United States and the measures initiated in both countries for increasing the supply.

Q. You yourself have been very much engaged on the subject of the propagation of fish?—A. Not so much in the lakes directly as in the rivers.

Q. You have shipped some of your fish by rail to California?—A. Yes.

Q. I remember reading an account of one of your large collections for California being lodged in one of the rivers by a bridge breaking down, for which collection the State has never paid?—A. Yes, a car of live fish which was being sent to California.

Q. In order to get some idea of the manipulation practiced in the breeding establishments, perhaps you will state whether steam machinery is not now used?—A. That is a device we have adopted this year for the first time in hatching shad, in which, instead of depending on the natural current of the river usually employed, we make the trays filled with spawn move up and down in the water in a continuous alternation, and in that way hatching millions of eggs where formerly we could only hatch thousands.

Q. You can state a case showing the result of one year's experiment.—A. We had eleven millions of shad in Susquehanna River in about three weeks in May and June.

Q. Can you state to the Commission the result of some fish operations at Potomac River?—A. The instance to which you refer is that of black bass. The black bass is not indigenous to the Potomac River, and none were in it. About two years ago half a dozen adult fish were placed in the river, and it might now be said that the Potomac, with the exception of St. John's River, Florida, is the most prolific in black bass of any stream in the United States. Over an extent of one hundred miles, the fishing for black bass both for market and sport is unrivaled anywhere.

Q. Without claiming too much for our people, are not the ingenuity and industry of the American people in taking fish for consumption and other uses on the one hand, and in propagating them on the other, very great and very remarkable? How is that?—A. The methods of fish-culture as practiced in the United States, and in Canada so far as they cover the same ground, are, we think, better than those anywhere in the Old World, and both countries hatch fish by millions where thousands are considered a large performance in Europe. The United States have a single establishment in California at which more eggs are obtained than are gathered by all European hatcheries put together. This year we have taken about six million eggs, and we have taken as many as eight millions in a year. We have an establishment now on Columbia River where we expect to hatch twenty millions of eggs. Three millions of eggs, I may say, in illustration of magnitude, would fill a hay-field cart to its utmost capacity.

Q. You have an estimate of the combined fishing of the United States for the year 1876, including the Bank fishing?—A. Yes. This is a table of the product of the marine fisheries of the United States east of Cape May within the treaty limits. The total product of the inshore fisheries of that range, the fish taken by boats from the shore, that taken by seines, by traps, pouuds, &c., amounts to 319,579,950 pounds, of a mean value of \$4,064,484. The total fisheries of the United States, inshore and offshore within the limits, amount to 1,045,855,750 pounds, of the value of \$13,030,821.

This is exclusive of any of the Southern fisheries, exclusive of the lake fishery, of the whale, porpoise, and seal fishery, and of the salmon, shad, and herring fishery.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. Does it include the Grand Bank fishery and that at George's?—A. Yes.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. It is exclusive entirely of the fresh-water fish of the lakes and rivers, shad, herring, and salmon, of the whale and fur-seal, of the oysters, lobsters, and crabs. The total coast-line on which the fisheries are pursued is 1,112 miles, from Cape May to Eastport, including the islands. The ratio to the mile is 940,510 pounds, the ratio of value is \$11,718.

Q. Will you state how the returns are obtained?—A. The figures in regard to the herring, cod, and mackerel are obtained from the reports of the Bureau of Statistics of the United States for 1876, the other figures are made up from a series of tables for each kind of fish. I had an estimate prepared of the production of each fishery, and those figures have been obtained partly from witnesses who have been here to testify, partly from the books of dealers in Gloucester, Boston, Newburyport, and elsewhere, partly and very largely from the returns I have gathered through agents I have sent out, and from circulars I have distributed. I have here an enumeration of all the different kinds of fish and quantity caught; it is simply a combined table from a great many sub-tables.

Q. These tables you will put into the case?—A. The tables were not made up by me, but under my direction. They are put in by the compiler under an affidavit.

Q. An examination will show they are very much in detail?—A. These tables, like all those of all nations, excepting, perhaps, those of France, are imperfect, and are short of the true figures. I have no doubt that a large percentage should be added to the tables of both nations in the New World. But they are accurate as far as they go; if they err, it is in the direction of deficiency, not of excess.

Q. It is so on both sides?—A. Yes.

Q. You are allowed a pretty large staff of persons to assist you as writers?—A. I have all the clerks and assistants I require. But a great many of those returns have been made to circulars I have distributed through the Departments of the Treasury and Post-Office, and other functionaries.

Q. In view of those vast resources of the country, and the supply of sea-fish of all kinds, the improved and increased methods of catching the fish, do you think there is any one kind of fish, the entire failure of which would prove a very serious matter, such, for instance, as the mackerel obtained in the Gulf of St. Lawrence?—A. I do not think that the entire failure of any kind of fish would affect the supply; but this would stimulate the fishermen to renewed efforts regarding some other fish. If all the mackerel disappeared, their places would be supplied by the Southern mullet, which are more abundant than the mackerel, and which could be taken in twice the quantity, if not more. If every mackerel was destroyed the mackerel fishermen would go down to the Southern coast, and take the mullet and pickle them.

Q. Your last statement applies only to fish caught north of Cape May?—A. Yes; it does not include any Southern fisheries at all, or any catch of the same fish in Southern waters, such as the bluefish or the mackerel.

By Mr. FOSTER:

Q. Is Cape May far north of the treaty line?—A. It is directly on the treaty line; this line cuts off Cape May and runs just at the north point of the coast there.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. So that these tables do not include the opening of Delaware Bay?—A. No; but only the fisheries on the coast of New Jersey—the outer coast of New Jersey—and from that northward.

By Mr. THOMSON:

Q. All this evidence which you have given, with reference to the mullet becoming

the fish of the future, is mere matter of speculation, is it not?—A. It is nothing more than what I judge from the excellence of this fish, the ease with which they are taken, and the ease with which they are cured, and the extent to which it is practiced as a local fishery by the people of North Carolina and other Southern States.

Q. Has not that fishery been known for a great many years?—A. I cannot say. I have only known it since 1872 and 1873. It probably has been known as a fishery for some years.

Q. Persons have eaten these mullet twenty or thirty years ago down South?—A. Yes.

Q. And it has not progressed at all as food for Northern consumption?—A. It is not now used as a food-fish in the North; but it is a fish which occupies the place of Northern fish through a large portion of the Southern States.

Q. Do you know from definite personal knowledge of your own whether they would not rather have there one single salt mackerel than a whole barrel of mullet?—A. No, I cannot say anything about that—as to their preference.

Q. I was told that this was the case no longer ago than this morning by a lady who has lived there, and I wanted to know what your experience in this respect was.—A. I must to my shame confess that I have never tasted a salt mullet; but I propose, as soon as I go home, to get a barrel of them and I will send some to Halifax for the Commission. I hope they will make up their minds to try them; I will do it the very first thing after I reach home, and I hope you will all try them.

Q. Is it not a fact well known to those who are engaged in the sea-fisheries that Southern fish, or, in other words, fish taken in warm waters, are fish that will not bear transportation to Northern climates?—A. I cannot say anything about that at all, but I know the only peculiarity about mullet is, that it is a fall and winter fishery. It is a cold-water fishery. It begins in September and lasts until November and December.

Q. You say it is a cold-water fishery, but the water is nothing like as cold there as it is in our waters during the same months?—A. No; but the water there is about as cold in winter—if not then quite as cold—as it is here in the summer time.

Q. Could cod, from your knowledge, live in the waters which are frequented by the mullet?—A. No; neither could the mullet live in the waters which are frequented by the cod.

Q. Are not the mullet also a fat fish?—A. Yes; they are very fat.

Q. Is not this fact also against transportation?—A. I do not know. I am not versed in the physics of transportation.

Q. How long ago is it since you first turned your attention to the fisheries at all?—A. I have done so since 1871.

Q. Previous to that time your specialty lay in another direction?—A. No; I have always been interested in fish as a branch of zoology for a great many years. I have been a specialist in ichthyology, and I described, prior to that date, hundreds of new species.

Q. Speaking about the pounds established along the New England shore, how many of them did you say were there?—A. Ninety-four.

Q. In answer to Mr. Dana you stated that this kind of fishing was open under the Washington treaty to British fishermen; do you think that you are quite right in stating that?—A. Yes.

Q. Do you think that under this treaty we have a right to set down pounds upon American soil?—A. You can, subject to the consent of the owners of the shore—just the same as with respect to any fishery so prosecuted in the Dominion.

Q. Is it possible for any person to carry on the business of pound fishing, except he is a resident on the coast?—A. I see no reason why any one from Canada could not go to Long Island Sound or to Vineyard Sound and prosecute this fishery.

Q. Then such a person must reside there?—A. No; very few of these pounds, and I think I may say that not one-half of the pound fishing in Buzzard's Bay and Vineyard Sound, are prosecuted by citizens of the State.

Q. A man must reside or remain there for the purpose of attending these pounds?—
A. Yes, for two or three months in the year.

Q. He must be a resident of the shore for two or three months in order to attend to these pounds?—A. Certainly; he must be on the ground, as any fishermen must be when fishing, in his boat.

Q. Practically and really this is a fishery which must be carried on by persons on the spot?—A. Of course; all fisheries must be carried on on the spot; but they need not necessarily be carried on by residents of that region or by citizens of the State. Most of these fisheries in Buzzard's Bay are carried on by people who do not usually live on the spot.

Q. At all events, do you seriously state that under the provisions of the Washington treaty we have a right to put down pounds on the American shore?—A. I think so, with the consent of the owner of the shore.

Q. That is another question.—A. Will you kindly read the clause of the treaty of Washington in this relation?

Q. It is as follows:

"It is agreed by the high contracting parties that, in addition to the liberties secured to the United States fishermen by the convention between Great Britain and the United States, signed at London on the 20th day of October, 1818, of taking, curing, and drying fish on certain coasts of the British North American colonies therein defined, the inhabitants of the United States shall have, in common with the subjects of Her Britannic Majesty, the liberty for the term of years mentioned in Article XXXIII of this treaty, to take fish of every kind, except shell-fish, on the sea-coasts and shores, and in the bays, harbors, and creeks of the provinces of Quebec, Nova Scotia, and New Brunswick, and the colony of Prince Edward Island, and of the several islands thereunto adjacent, without being restricted to any distance from the shore, with permission to land upon the said coasts and shores and islands, and also upon the Magdalen Islands, for the purpose of drying their nets and curing their fish."

A. Yes; I do not understand that any mode of fishing is prohibited under this treaty, unless it is so mentioned in express terms, as is the case with shad, salmon, and shell-fish. I do not understand that any mode of fishing is prohibited to the citizens of the opposite nation, except what conflicts with the local law of the country.

Q. Can these pounds be put down without landing to make preparations for that purpose?—A. Yes; perfectly well. It is not absolutely necessary to go on shore at all to do it; indeed I know of a great many pounds which do not touch the shore, but which are started 20, 30, or 50 yards from the shore.

Q. Do you seriously contend that there are territorial rights given us under the Washington treaty, because you recollect that the putting down of poles in the soil is a territorial right?—A. Yes.

Q. Do I seriously understand you to contend that, under this treaty, rights are given either to the Americans on the one side or to the British on the other, as to doing anything on the shores of either country except landing to cure fish and dry nets?—A. I understand that if you wish to start a pound in Buzzard's Bay, you could go to Naushon Island, owned by John M. Forbes, an eminent citizen of the United States, and with his permission you can do so; and that you require no permission in this regard either from the State of Massachusetts or the Government of the United States; he has precisely the same right to give authority to put down a pound, I think, as has Ashby, who was a witness here and a native of Connecticut.

Q. That is to say that Mr. Forbes, who owns the land, could allow me to go and put down a pound there?—A. There is not the slightest question about it.

Q. Could he not do that before this treaty was ratified?—A. I do not know whether he could do so or not; I cannot say anything about that; that is a legal question.

Q. He could have given me that right previous to the treaty just as well as since?—A. I do not know what exact right the treaty may give in this relation; but that is no reason why this might not be done. I consider that this fishery is now perfectly open to Canadians.

Q. Has not the mode in which the rivers on the coast of Maine have been treated for a number of years back depleted the waters on that coast or on the New England coast of cod, for instance, which you say was once one of the most important fish found there?—A. The destruction of river fish, in my opinion, has had more to do with the diminution of inshore fish, such as cod and haddock—

Q. And mackerel, too?—A. No, not mackerel; this has nothing to do with them. Mackerel cannot be considered in that connection, because they do not depend on the fish of those rivers for food; but I think that such destruction has more than anything else to do with the decrease of these fish I have mentioned, inshore; and the result of the measures which are now being taken by the States of Maine and Massachusetts, in restoring the river fisheries, will bring back the original historical abundance of the sea-fish inshore.

Q. What this will do is as yet in the womb of the future; but at present are not those fisheries depleted?—A. The boat-fisheries for cod and haddock are now much inferior in yield on most parts of that coast to what was the case 50 or 100 years ago.

Q. You now allude to the coast fisheries within the three-mile limit?—A. Yes; the fisheries carried on in open boats, which go out as far as a man can comfortably go in a day and come back again.

Q. Do you wish the Commission to understand that this system of treating the rivers has destroyed the food of sea-fish, and therefore that the bait or food is not there to induce the cod to come inshore, but that this has had no effect on the fish outside of the three-mile limit?—A. I cannot say how far out the effect extends, because some distance outside of the limits there are other fishes, such as herring and mackerel, and food of various kinds which they can get at.

Q. Is it possible that the inshore fisheries can be either destroyed or very considerably depleted within the three-mile limit and yet leave the fisheries just outside of this limit as good as ever?—A. I think so.

Q. And undiminished?—A. I think so, for the very reason that these fish naturally keep off from the shore. They are off-shore fish, and we find them largely inshore at certain seasons of the year because they then follow the fish that are coming inshore; and if you had an enormous number of shad and alewives and salmon, and especially of alewives and shad inshore, that involves their pursuit by an enormous number of predatory fish, such as cod and haddock and pollock, just exactly as the same fish follow the herring and caplin on the coasts of the Dominion and Newfoundland.

Q. Then I understand you to mean that, although the food which these fishes prey upon may be destroyed by reason of the depletion of the rivers, this will only affect the fishing within three miles of the shore and have no effect on the fishing beyond this limit?—A. I cannot say how far it will have effect.

Q. Will this effect stop short of the three-mile limit?—A. I think there are a great many concurrent agencies which affect the fish supply at different seasons on the different parts of the coast, and that while the inshore fishing of herring and shad, or other incoming fish, regulates that to some extent, it does not cover the whole ground.

Q. I want a direct answer: Are you able to state that the destruction of bait, by reason of the bad treatment of these rivers, only affects the fishing along the coast to the extent of three miles from it?—A. I cannot say that; I cannot say how far such effect extends, and nobody can do so.

Q. It is reasonable to suppose that it extends for a considerable distance farther than three miles from the coast?—A. That I cannot say.

Q. Would this not more likely drive the fish to other coasts where the rivers are not so treated?—A. Fish certainly have to go where they can get food, and if they cannot procure it on one spot they have to go to some other spot for it.

Q. Is it not probable that they will go where the rivers are not so badly treated?—A. This depends on how far cod and haddock will migrate, under any circumstances. If they leave the shore, but can find an ample supply of food on George's Bank or on Nantucket Shoals, they will probably stay there.

Q. Do cod migrate at all? Is this known for a certainty to be the case?—A. It is not certain that they have such migrations as we ascribe to the bluefish and mackerel; whether they traverse a mile of sea-bottom in search of food, or whether they go 100 miles for it, under any circumstances, I cannot say.

Q. I understood you to say yesterday that you could not trace their migrations at all?—A. No, I cannot.

Q. And do you not pretend to say that they do migrate? I rather understood you to say also that mackerel do not migrate?—A. They migrate, but they do not sweep along the coast—at least I do not think they do so, as was formerly supposed, for very many miles; but rather come direct from their winter grounds inshore.

Q. I understood you to say your theory at present was that there was a vast body of mackerel which, forming one wing of their army, passed along the American coast; and that another wing directed their course into the gulf?—A. Yes.

Q. I see that in the answer of the United States, page 10, the following language is used:

"The migration of mackerel in the spring begins on the Atlantic coast from a point as far south as Cape Hatteras. The first-comers reach Provincetown, Mass., about May 10. Here they begin to scatter, and they are found during the entire season along the New England coast.

"Whatever may be the theories of others on the subject," says Professor Baird "the American mackerel-fisher knows perfectly well that in spring, about May, he will find the schools of mackerel off Cape Hatteras, and that he can follow them northward, day by day, as they move in countless myriads on to the coast of Maine, of Nova Scotia, and into the Gulf of St. Lawrence. They may be occasionally lost sight of by their sinking below the surface; but they are sure to present themselves, shortly after, to those who look for them farther north and east."

Do you now adhere to that statement?—A. I think that was not the most philosophical expression on that subject. My views in regard to the proper theory concerning mackerel have been modified since then, to the extent I have alleged.

Q. In fact, if I correctly understood you yesterday, you rather inclined to the theory which has been started here, that mackerel are not a migratory fish at all, but hibernate in the mud?—A. I cannot precisely say; but the evidence is quite strong in favor of hibernation of some kind, though I do not consider the case proven in this respect; at the same time I do not consider it philosophical to refuse to countenance its possibility.

Q. Will you tell me how, if possible, it could be otherwise, if it is true that the mackerel have, in the spring, scales over their eyes, as has been described by witnesses here, and, as I understand, you admit?—A. I cannot say that this is the case; I have never seen it.

Q. If these scales are on their eyes they could not possibly do otherwise than hibernate?—A. I cannot say that; I am not a mackerel, and I could not tell what they do or what they do not do.

Q. Is it certain that any fish, that you are aware of, hibernate in the mud?—A. That is not certain, but it is believed to be the case.

Q. Do you know of any fish which certainly does hibernate?—A. The eel does.

Q. Is its eyes protected against the mud by scales?—A. This is not the case so far as I know. It has not been noted or reported.

Q. How has it become a theory if it has never been noted? Is it the want of experience with reference to mackerel that you do not know whether scales are found over its eyes or not?—A. I have never caught mackerel in the critical period of the year when they are said to have scales over their eyes; but a specimen which I have preserved in alcohol did have scales over its eyes, though the action of the alcohol on the cornea of the eye always tends to make it opaque and destroys its transparency.

Q. Is there any period of the year when mackerel must be prevented from seeing, as far as you can judge from the specimen which you possess?—A. No; I cannot say that.

Q. What are these scales for?—A. I cannot say. The theory of the fishermen, however, is that it is to curb the roving habits of the mackerel, and make it more ready to stay in the mud; and that otherwise they would not want to stay there; that is the hypothesis of the fishermen, and I give it for what it is worth.

Q. You do not assent to it?—A. No; it is not proven to be true.

Q. And it is not disproven?—A. All that is proven in this respect is, that in winter we do not see the mackerel; they do not then school on the surface, nor do they go to the West Indies, or to Bermuda, or to Florida; nor do they then appear on the surface anywhere as far as the testimony has gone.

Q. With reference to the inshore fisheries in the State of Maine, and in the States of New England, generally, are they depleted or not?—A. The boat-fisheries there are not what they were fifty or one hundred years ago; that, I think, I am perfectly safe in saying; but whether there has been any decrease in them during the past few years I cannot say.

Q. I now quote from your own report, part second, for the years 1872 and 1873, page xi; it is headed "Conclusions as to decrease of cod-fisheries on the New England Coast," and it states:

"Of all the various fisheries formerly prosecuted directly off the coast of New England, north of Cape Cod, the depreciation in that of the cod appears to be of the greatest economical importance. Formerly the waters abounded in this fish to such an extent that a large supply could be taken throughout almost the entire year along the banks, especially in the vicinity of the mouths of the large rivers. At that time the tidal streams were almost choked up with the alewives, shad, and salmon that were struggling for entrance in the spring, and which filled the adjacent waters throughout a great part of the year.

"As is well known, the erection of impassable dams across the streams, by preventing the ascent of the species just mentioned to their spawning-grounds, produced a very great diminution, and almost the extermination, of their numbers, so that whereas in former years a large trade could be carried on during the proper season, now nothing would be gained by the effort."

On page xii you say this:

"It would, therefore, appear that while the river-fisheries have been depreciated or destroyed by means of dams or by exhaustive fishing, the codfish have disappeared in equal ratio. This is not, however, for the same reason, as they are taken only with the line, at a rate more than compensated by the natural fecundity of the fish. I am well satisfied, however, that there is a relation of cause and effect between the present and past condition of the two series of fish; and in this I am supported by the opinion of Capt. U. S. Treat, of Eastport, by whom, indeed, the idea was first suggested to me. Captain Treat is a successful fisherman, and dealer in fish on a very large scale, and at the same time a gentleman of very great intelligence and knowledge of the many details connected with the natural history of our coast-fishes, and in this respect worthily representing Captain Atwood, of Provincetown. It is to Captain Treat that we owe many experiments on the reproduction of alewives in ponds, and the possibility of keeping salmon in fresh waters for a period of years. The general conclusions which have been reached, as the result of repeated conversations with Captain Treat and other fishermen on the coast, incline me to believe that the reduction in the cod and other fisheries, so as to become practically a failure, is due to the decrease off our coast in the quantity, primarily, of alewives, and secondarily of shad and salmon, more than to any other cause.

"It is well known to the old residents of Eastport that from thirty to fifty years ago cod could be taken in abundance in Passamaquoddy Bay and off Eastport, where only stragglers are now to be caught. The same is the case at the mouth of the Penobscot River and at other points along the coast, where once the fish came close in to the shore, and were readily captured with the hook throughout the greater part of the year."

A. Yes.

Q. Do you dissent now from that opinion?—A. No; I used that as an impressive lesson to the State legislature to induce them to pass the measures necessary to restore these river fisheries, which they are now doing very rapidly.

Q. Where is Capt. U. S. Treat, of Eastport, now?—A. In Japan, teaching the Japanese how to catch and cure fish.

Q. On page xiv of this report you say:

"Whatever may be the importance of increasing the supply of salmon, it is trifling compared with the restoration of our exhausted cod-fisheries; and should these be brought back to their original condition, we shall find within a short time an increase of wealth on our shores, the amount of which it would be difficult to calculate. Not only would the general prosperity of the adjacent States be enhanced, but in the increased number of vessels built, in the large number of men induced to devote themselves to maritime pursuits, and in the general stimulus to everything connected with the business of the sea-faring profession, we should be recovering, in a great measure, from that loss which has been the source of so much lamentation to political economists and well-wishers of the country."

That you still adhere to?—A. Certainly. I made that report as impressive as I could in order to produce the effect desired, which was to cause the legislature to pass a law in this regard, and it has had that effect. They have passed such laws, and I hope that this evil will be remedied in a reasonable number of years.

Q. It is not remedied yet?—A. No.

Q. It takes a number of years to do that?—A. I can give an instance where it has had such effect, if you like to have it. In Massachusetts the most has been done for the restoration of alewives and shad in the Merrimac River; and the shore fisheries there have now increased in a very marked degree. At the present time it is perfectly possible for a man to go out in a boat from the city of Newburyport and catch 4,000 pounds of codfish and bring them back the same night. This is the only river in Massachusetts in which very great efforts have been made to restore these river fisheries; and it is now possible to capture these fish in much greater quantities than was the case ten years ago; and this I ascribe to the action of the State government with regard to the restoration of river fish.

Q. How many pounds did you mention?—A. 4,000.

Q. Caught by a single man?—A. Two men will do it; a man with a trawl and an assistant will go out in an open boat in the morning from the city of Newburyport and come back at night, or go out at night and return in the morning, and in the mean time take 4,000 pounds of cod. That is the only point along there at which, at that distance from the shore, I know that it is possible to catch cod in such numbers.

Q. Must not a great lapse of time, or at least a very considerable lapse of time, occur before the fisheries destroyed, as you have here described, can be restored by the process you speak of?—A. I think that this depends on the amount of time necessary for the restoration of the fish, which run out to sea from the rivers. I think that if this year there are no such fish as alewives, &c., to run into these rivers, and that if next year a great army was to so run in, concurrent with that army, an army of cod and other fish would be there to prey upon them.

Q. I see that in your Report for 1872 and 1873, referring to the lake fish, you say on page lxxxii:

"The restoration of food-fishes to localities originally tenanted by them, or their transfer to new waters, is, however, a question of time; and in the immense extent of our river and lake systems, many years must necessarily elapse before the work can be accomplished."

A. That is a great number of years, certainly; but that does not so much refer to any particular river as to the aggregate rivers and lakes scattered over the whole body of the United States.

Q. You say here that "many years must necessarily elapse"?—A. Certainly.

Q. When did you commence this work?—A. The actual process of artificial propagation began, under my direction, in 1872.

Q. Do you refer to any term of years? I suppose that you mean a period of 10, 12 or 14 years.—A. It might be more. The time of course depends on the expenditure involved, and the concurrence of suitable legislation to protect the fish, and many other points.

Q. How many fish-breeding establishments have you in the States?—A. Nearly every State in the Union has now a series of fish commissioners, whose business it is to propagate fish within their borders.

Q. There is only one in each State?—A. There is one State establishment; and a certain number of private establishments in each, founded for the purpose of gain.

Q. Do you know how many there are in Canada?—A. I know there are a great many. Canada is doing most admirably in this respect.

Q. And very much more in proportion than the United States?—A. No; I think not. I think by far less in proportion.

Q. In proportion?—A. Yes.

Q. To population?—A. I do not say according to population. I shall qualify that statement by saying that what is done in Canada is done on a much less scale of magnitude than is the case in the United States. I mean that the aggregate of artificial propagation in the United States is much greater than the aggregate in Canada; but I would not take a ratio. I think that both Canada and the United States are doing as much as they can in this regard, in the time that has been allowed for the purpose.

Q. I suppose that Canada is doing a very large work in this connection?—A. She is doing most admirably—yes.

Q. She is expending large sums of money on it?—A. Certainly. She is doing most admirably. I am very happy to say that Canada and the United States are working concurrently in a great many directions in the line of artificial fish-culture.

Q. Do you know the Canadian establishment on Detroit River?—A. Yes.

Q. Is it doing a large business?—A. I don't know what it is doing this year; but last year I understand that it did a very large business.

Q. It then hatched 10,000,000 eggs?—A. Yes, very likely.

Q. You say that cod cannot live except in cold water?—A. The cod is an inhabitant of the colder waters.

Q. Are you aware whether or not the Gulf Stream during the summer months swings in at all more toward the American coast?—A. It does.

Q. For how many miles?—A. I cannot say.

Q. Would that have any effect in driving the cod away from the American shores?—A. No; not the slightest.

Q. You think not?—A. Yes; it has not the slightest effect on them. If you go down to a certain depth in the ocean, in the tropics or anywhere else, you will find the water cold enough for cod; and there is nothing to prevent the cod being as abundant in tropical waters—say off Brazil or the West Indies—as anywhere else; as far as temperature is concerned, it is cold enough there for them at a certain depth.

Q. Have they ever been caught there?—A. Not that I know of; but the water there is cold enough for them.

Q. Is it not very venturesome to state that there is nothing to prevent them staying there?—A. They may be there, but they have not been caught there. Nobody has fished at those great depths, for you have got to go down from 6,000 to 15,000 and 20,000 feet to find that temperature in tropical seas.

Q. Have you the slightest idea as to what sort of animals reside down there?—A. Yes. We have a very good knowledge of such species as can be taken up by the trawling line and dredge from those depths; and we know that an ample supply of food suitable for cod is to be found there.

Q. Has any beam-trawl or dredge ever taken cod in those regions?—A. No; you do not catch cod with small trawls any more than you can so catch whales.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. Would not the temperature in those waters interfere with the spawn of the

cod, as this spawn floats?—A. I think that the water there might be too warm for the development of codfish eggs in the abstract; but the effect would be to make them hatch out more rapidly than would be the case in cold water. Of course it is a very serious question to decide whether, with the present constitution of the cod, its eggs would develop in warm water, though whether it might not evolute and develop into a warm-water cod I do not know.

By Mr. THOMSON:

Q. On page ix of your Report for 1872 and 1873, you use the following language:

"It is in another still more important connection that we should consider the alewife. It is well known that within the last thirty or forty years the fisheries of cod, haddock, and hake along our coasts have measurably diminished, and in some places ceased entirely. Enough may be taken for local consumption, but localities which formerly furnished the material for an extensive commerce in dried fish have been entirely abandoned. Various causes have been assigned for this condition of things, and, among others, the alleged diminution of the sea-herring. After a careful consideration of the subject, however, I am strongly inclined to believe that it is due to the diminution, and, in many instances, to the extermination of the alewives. As already remarked, before the construction of dams in the tidal rivers the alewife was found in incredible numbers along our coast, probably remaining not far from shore, excepting when moving up into the fresh water, and, at any rate, spending a considerable interval off the mouths of the rivers either at the time of their journey upward or on their return. The young, too, after returning from the ocean, usually swarmed in the same localities, and thus furnished for the larger species a bait such as is not supplied at present by any other fish, the sea-herring not excepted. We know that the alewife is particularly attractive as a bait to other fishes, especially for cod and mackerel."

A. Do I say mackerel?

Q. Yes.—A. That is an inadvertence. I do not think that the alewife is a bait for mackerel.

Q. You say:

"We know that the alewife is particularly attractive as a bait to other fishes, especially for cod and mackerel."

A. Well, I should not have said that.

Q. The alewives are the same as the fish we call gaspereaux in New Brunswick?—A. Yes.

Q. You further say:

"Alewives enter the streams on the south coast of New England before the arrival of the bluefish; but the latter devote themselves with great assiduity to the capture of the young as they come out from their breeding-ponds. The outlet of an alewife pond is always a capital place for the bluefish, and as they come very near the shore in such localities, they can be caught there with the line by what is called 'heaving and hauling,' or throwing a squid from the shore, and hauling it in with the utmost rapidity."

"The coincidence, at least, in the erection of the dams, and the enormous diminution in the number of the alewives, and the decadence of the inshore cod-fishery, is certainly very remarkable. It is probable, also, that the mackerel fisheries have suffered in the same way, as these fish find in the young menhaden and alewives an attractive bait."

You see you say that twice.—A. That is an inadvertence.

Q. You say:

"It is probable also that the mackerel fisheries have suffered in the same way, as these fish find in the young menhaden and alewives an attractive bait."

A. This is the case on the northern coast probably.

Q. It is hardly an inadvertence?—A. It is an inadvertence. It is a conclusion that is not justified by the fact.

Q. Then you dissent from that opinion now?—A. Yes; I do not consider that it has a bearing on the mackerel question.

Q. All that goes to show that all these speculative opinions are entitled to little weight; you see that you have changed your opinion in this respect?—A. Certainly; as the data vary the conclusions also vary.

Q. I suppose you will admit that there is not the slightest reason why within the next three years you may not have come back to the same opinion which you now repudiate, or have then formed opinions totally different from those which you now express before the Commission?—A. I cannot say; that will depend entirely on the facts as they come.

Q. After all, this is all the purest theory?—A. It is an hypothesis; it is not a theory.

Q. Well, it is an hypothesis?—A. It is not a theory until it is absolutely certified by the facts.

Q. Then, of course, an hypothesis is more vague than a theory. You gave in a mass of figures just now, which you state were made up by your assistant, based upon information which you have got from some of the witnesses here, in answer to questions put them, and what not—have I understood you rightly?—A. Partly.

Q. And your assistant has verified them by his affidavit—have I understood you rightly?—A. Yes; they are verified by the affidavit of the assistant who made them up.

Q. What sort of an affidavit is it? Does he state that these figures are correct, or simply that they are there?—A. He certifies that he has compiled them and what they represent.

Q. In point of fact you cannot yourself swear that this statement is correct?—A. I cannot swear that; but it is made up from the statistics of the Fishery Commission and investigations.

Q. Even to that I do not think you can swear?—A. No more than Mr. Whitcher or Mr. Smith can swear to the correctness of Canadian statistics.

Q. You directed it to be made up by one of your assistants?—A. Yes.

Q. And you do not know whether it has been made up correctly or not?—A. No more than any man can swear to the accuracy of his assistant's work.

Q. As a fact, you have no personal knowledge as to its correctness?—A. Certainly not.

Q. You directed it to be done?—A. Precisely; it stands on the same footing as any table made up by a clerk.

Q. Did you directly take into consideration statements made by witnesses here?—A. I have very largely taken into consideration inquiries made by Mr. Goode, my assistant, of witnesses here, according to the same definite plan which I have adopted elsewhere.

Q. Inasmuch as we have not the results of what these inquiries were, and since the Commissioners have not them before them, none of these inquiries which you made, and none of the information which you thus obtained, are before us, the papers being locked up in your desk.—A. They are in the archives of the Fishery Commission.

Q. Then we have no means of testing the accuracy of those figures?—A. No; not the slightest. They are there for what they are worth. I present them with the affidavit which was made by my assistant.

Q. You admit that you have not furnished us with any means of attesting their accuracy?—A. You must take them for what they are worth. They are of the same value as any table published by the Fishery Department of Canada or the United States or anywhere else.

Q. If I rightly understood your answer to Mr. Dana yesterday, you rather think that the throwing over of offal amounts to nothing?—A. No; I do not think that it does amount to anything.

Q. I thought you gave a rather interesting description of sea-fleas.—A. I merely say that it is a question whether it is or was injurious to the food of fishes on the coast, as has been maintained. It is a question as to which we have no definite proof that it injures the fishes; and I am inclined to believe that it has more of a local and immediate effect on the fish than it does injury to the fish.

Q. Would it not necessarily injure the spawn in its neighborhood?—A. No.

Q. You think not?—A. No.

Q. Not if thrown over on the top of spawn?—A. No; you might throw it over all day long and try to injure a load of floating spawn and you could not do it. Nobody has ever suggested that gurry affects the spawn. By spawn I suppose you mean eggs?

Q. Yes.—A. No; nothing of the kind is to be thought of.

Q. You quoted yesterday Mr. Whiteaves's report. He says on page 11:

"In case Americans are allowed to fish in Canadian waters, the custom (said to be practiced by them) of splitting the fish caught at sea, and throwing the offal overboard, on the fishing-ground, should not be permitted."

A. I do not think that I quoted Mr. Whiteaves on that point, but with regard to the spawning-time of mackerel in the bay.

Q. In your report of 1872 and 1873 Mr. Milner is your assistant?—A. Yes.

Q. On page 19 I find this language used:

"Throwing offal on the fishing-grounds.—It is the uniform testimony of all fishermen that throwing offal or dead fish in the vicinity of the fishing-grounds is offensive to the whitefish, and drives him away. The whitelish is peculiarly cleanly in its instincts, and has an aversion for muddy or foul water of any description. Most fishermen regard their own interest sufficiently to be careful in this particular, while many careless and shiftless men injure themselves and others by dumping offal and dead fish anywhere in the lake where they find it convenient, reducing the catch in the vicinity for several months."

A. Yes.

Q. It is also stated:

"Unsalable fishes are generally thrown overboard in the vicinity of the nets."

You do not dissent from that opinion?—A. No; not at all. The cases, however, are totally different. There are no scavengers in fresh water as there are in the sea; there are no sea-fleas, or sculpin, or lobsters, or anything of the kind, to clean up offal in fresh water, as is the case in the ocean.

Q. In your opinion, are purse-seiners proper or improper agents for taking fish?—A. I have not formed any opinion on the subject; but I am inclined to think, however, that this is not a destructive mode of fishing. They destroy a good many fish, but I do not think that they diminish the absolute number of fish in the sea.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. Will you repeat that?—A. I say I do not think that they affect the total number of the fish in the sea materially, although they destroy and waste a great many fish. If you will permit me, I would state my reason for this view; it is this: Every school of mackerel has a large body of predatory fish attendant upon it, such as dogfish, sharks, and other species, which are bound to have so many fish a day. They will eat their one, two, or three fish a day, and if they cannot get them dead they will eat them alive; therefore, if a large body of young mackerel is thrown out of these purse-seines, besides mackerel which are rejected and worthless, the predatory fish that are attendant upon the mackerel will eat these dead fish, and if they do not find them dead they will take them alive; so it does not affect the number of fish in the sea.

By Mr. THOMSON:

Q. Are you positive about that? Do you undertake to say that the predaceous fishes will, in preference to capturing live fish, which they can easily do, be content with dead ones?—A. I think that is very likely.

Q. There, there—you say "very likely"?—A. I cannot say. I am not a predaceous

fish; but I would prefer a live fish. I am pretty sure, however, that these fish are quite ready to be saved the trouble of taking their prey. It is on precisely the same principle that bait-fish, such as capelin and herring, are placed on hooks and cast overboard to catch the same fish, which follow and eat them in the natural way. I think this may be inferred from that.

Q. You have something to do with the Annual Record of Science and Industry, I believe?—A. Something—yes.

Q. Do you agree with the language used in an article contained on page 473 of this journal for 1872?—A. I did not write that, but I published it.

Q. Have you in any article stated that you dissent from it?—A. No. It is not my business to do so. That article merely reflects the opinion of the writer. I would be very sorry to believe one-half of what I publish in that periodical; but it expresses the progress of belief and science, and I take it accordingly.

Q. It is a matter of speculation whether dead fish are eaten, as you say, by predaceous fishes; this is mere theory?—A. I have no doubt that they are so eaten.

By Mr. WHITEWAY:

Q. You have stated that the largest quantity of codfish taken in the shortest possible time was in the vicinity of the Lofoden Islands?—A. Yes.

Q. You said that something like 25,000,000 were taken by 12,000 people?—A. Yes.

Q. In a very short time—in the course of three months?—A. Yes; and in a very small space.

Q. Where did you get your statistics from?—A. From a report of the Norwegian Government.

Q. For what year?—A. 1868, I think.

Q. Whose report was it?—A. It is an extremely hard jaw-breaking title; it is an abstract, prepared by Hermann Baars, of Bergen, Norway. It was an article prepared by him for presentation at the Paris Exhibition.

Q. You have not seen reports published since that time?—A. Oh, yes; I have them much later.

Q. Did these later statistics correspond with the former as regards the quantity?—A. I know that the capture of cod in Lofoden Islands in 1876 amounted to 21,000,000 or 22,000,000; I have the figures here.

Q. Are you aware what quantity of codfish is caught on the coast of Newfoundland?—A. No. I have been earnestly trying to get the statistics of Newfoundland in this respect, but I have not been able to obtain them as yet. I hope you will send them to me.

Q. You are not aware whether it is an inshore or deep-sea fishery on that island?—A. No. I know nothing about it.

Q. You say that fish are dried and used as food for cattle in these islands and in Norway?—A. Yes.

Q. What sort of cattle use it?—A. Horses, oxen, and cows; they eat it with great avidity.

Q. What portion do they make use of?—A. Any part, but more generally the heads, which are offal; they make most admirable nutriment.

Q. You say that a great many nations dress very largely in the skins of cod and salmon?—A. Yes.

Q. Will you kindly tell me what nations these are?—A. They are Tchuktchi, the Aleutian Islanders, the Norton Sound Esquimaux, other natives of Alaska, and a few others.

Q. You say, further, that the most extensive resorts of cod are the Grand Bank and George's Bank; can you tell me the quantity of fish taken on these banks?—A. No; I have not made any investigation or tabulation in this regard.

Q. Then you really base that opinion upon no data?—A. I merely base it on my general impression on that subject. I merely speak of these as being the most prominent particular banks and localities which the cod frequent. In speaking of the

islands and other places in this connection, I mentioned banks off the coast of Labrador, but I did not refer to the great sweep of northern waters where the cod is found diffused. I referred more particularly to the places that are known and publicly mentioned. What is not published in this regard I know nothing about.

Q. With reference to Labrador, can you answer whether the fish are taken inshore—that is, within the three-mile range, or on the Banks off-shore?—A. I am told, but I cannot say with what certainty, that at certain seasons of the year the cod are there taken in great quantities inshore from boats, but that the great bodies of the fish are on the Banks at some distance from the shore.

Q. Are these Banks fished?—A. That I cannot tell.

Q. Where are these Banks?—A. As far as I can learn, they extend at a distance of some 15 or 25 miles, perhaps, along almost the entire length of the coast of Labrador.

Q. Will you pledge yourself to that statement?—A. No; I know nothing about it.

Q. From whom did you get this information?—A. From the published writings of Professor Hind.

Q. I think he indicates in these writings the exact position of these Banks?—A. I think that probably he does. I may have located them too near or too far from the shore. I speak merely in general terms.

Q. I think that this report only indicates the existence of banks on certain portions of the coast of Labrador?—A. Perhaps I may have made them too extensive.

Q. You have referred to a bank on which codfish are taken, off Cape Cod, about 20 miles, I think, in length; can you give me any information as regards the annual product of this bank?—A. I think you will find that given in Captain Atwood's testimony.

Q. Can you give it?—A. No; I know nothing of it, except from Captain Atwood.

Q. Is any report made in any public office in Massachusetts or the States, from which you can gather information as regards the exact quantity of fish taken outside of the three-mile limit, and inside of this limit?—A. No.

Q. In other words, is a report concerning the quantity of fish taken within and without this limit published?—A. No.

Q. Is nothing published in this relation?—A. It is my business, or my self-imposed mission to collect that information, and I am doing so as fast as I can. I hope that my next report will contain a great deal of this and other useful information.

Q. How many vessels are engaged in this fishery off Cape Cod?—A. I cannot tell you; but I have a great deal of information on this subject in my records, which, however, I do not carry with me, and I do not trust my memory for anything.

Q. I think you referred to the herring fishery as yielding a very great quantity of fish on the American coast?—A. Yes.

Q. On the coast of the United States?—A. Yes.

Q. And the coast of Massachusetts?—A. Yes.

Q. Is that yield so great as you mention, during the winter?—A. It is during both spring and fall. These fish are found all along the coast in the spring.

Q. During what months is this the case in the spring?—A. In April and May.

Q. And in winter?—A. I do not think that they are caught in winter north of Cape Cod; I do not think so; but so little is known of the biology and the natural history of herring that this might be the fact, and yet it be not known—I mean not known to the ordinary public. It was entirely new to me five years ago that herring spawned on the Massachusetts coast at all.

Q. Then there is no winter herring-fishery there?—A. The winter fishery is a very small one; it is carried on around Block Island and Narragansett Bay, but whether capabilities exist for prosecuting a winter fishery elsewhere on the coast I cannot say.

Q. How do you account then for the fact that such a number of your vessels come to the southern coast of Newfoundland for herring, if they are so prolific on your own coast?—A. That I cannot say. Why trade follows one line or direction rather than

another I do not know. They may not have appliances for catching them on our coast, and they may not have the means of taking them in such quantities as is possible at Newfoundland; but it is certainly a notorious fact that herring are much more abundant on the coast of Newfoundland than they are on the coast of the United States; though whether the herring that are wanted on the United States coast could or could not be had in the United States, I cannot say; but I do think that herring are vastly more abundant in Newfoundland and the Bay of Fundy than they are farther south.

Q. That accounts, then, for the number of your vessels that come to Newfoundland for them, no doubt. Give us the number of miles of United States coast along which fishing rights have been conceded to British subjects under the Washington Treaty?—
A. 1,112.

Q. Can you give the extent of the Dominion coast, including that of Newfoundland?—A. Yes; the coast line of the Province of Canada is 810 miles; of New Brunswick, 1,000 miles; of Nova Scotia, 390 miles; of Newfoundland, 1,650 miles; of Grand Manan, 30 miles; of Prince Edward Island, 285 miles; of the Magdalen Islands, 85 miles; and of Anticosti Island, 265 miles; the total length of the coast line of Eastern British North America is 4,515 miles, four times that of the United States east of Cape Cod.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. Following the bays?—A. Following the large bays, but omitting the smaller ones.

By Mr. WHITEWAY:

Q. In your statement regarding the annual product of the Dominion fisheries, you have not included the Newfoundland fisheries?—A. No; I have only that of the Dominion of Canada.

Q. Are you aware that something like 1,500,000 or 1,600,000 quintals of fish are caught in Newfoundland alone?—A. I think that is very probable, but I do not know.

Q. Besides the large herring fishery?—A. I am very anxious to know exactly what the Newfoundland catch is; I have made inquiries respecting it; but I have not been able to obtain any such public data.

Q. You say that the depletion of the codfish on the coast has been the result of the depletion of the river fisheries on the coast of Massachusetts?—A. I gave that as presumably one reason for it. It is probably a very important element in the fishery.

Q. Then any act which may prove injurious to the bay fisheries on the coast would seriously affect the inshore fisheries by removing that which induced the cod to go on the coast?—A. Yes; it would have its effect, I think. Possibly a very decided effect.

Q. As a naturalist I would ask you to answer one or two questions. What do you mean by the term "fish"? Can you give us a definition?—A. Well, a fish is a cold-blooded vertebrate, having a particular mode of respiration. It breathes through gills instead of lungs, and it has a heart of a particular construction.

Q. I will read the definition from a book published in New York by Harper Brothers, the Encyclopedia of Commerce. I presume that is an authority that can be relied upon [reads definition]. I suppose that is a definition that can be relied upon?—A. No; I think it cannot be relied upon at all. That would make anything that floats in the water a fish. So that the seal would be a fish and the otter would be a fish.

Q. This is the Encyclopedia of Commerce. I suppose it is reliable. I mean as an encyclopedia of commerce?—A. Well, I don't know. I don't think it is quoted very much. It is probably a very good compilation. There are a great many books of that class that one has occasion to look at without feeling that they are perfectly accurate.

Q. Do you consider the seal a fish?—A. Not at all.

Q. Why?—A. Because it is a warm-blooded mammal. It breathes by means of lungs, &c.

Q. Is not the whale the same?—A. The whale is no more a fish than the seal.

Q. It is a mammal; it is a swimmer?—A. If you were to fall overboard in mid-ocean you would be a swimmer.

Q. How is it with the walrus?—A. It is a mammal, not a fish.

Q. So is the whale is it not?—A. Yes.

Q. How do you draw a distinction between the whale and the seal; the one you consider a fish and the other not?—A. I don't consider the seal a fish.

Q. I thought you did. Now, don't you consider it a very unreasonable action on the part of the United States, the refusal to admit seal-oil as fish-oil. Perhaps you don't care to answer?—A. I don't object to answer. I am not a politician. I am perfectly willing to answer the question. I know that the penguin is considered a fish, commercially—that is, that penguin-oil is received in England as fish-oil.

Q. That is a very important matter. I should like very much to have it taken down that, as a commercial oil, the penguin-oil is considered a fish-oil?—A. It is in London.

Q. Is it not in the United States?—A. No; but as far as I am informed the oil is classified in the London custom-house and trade returns as a fish-oil.

Q. What is the quintal in weight?—A. 112 pounds in some localities, and in some 100 pounds.

Q. It was given here as 114 pounds?—A. Well, it might be 114 pounds. It is simply my impression that the quintal is considered 112 pounds. I would not be positive. A practical fish-dealer would give more positive information than I could.

By Mr. DANA:

Q. Here, on the 148th page of British Testimony we have a letter from Governor Hill to the Earl of Kimberly, taken from the journals of the legislative council in Newfoundland. It appears here, in the evidence of Judge Bennett, as follows:

GOVERNMENT HOUSE,

Newfoundland, July 4, 1871.

MY LORD: I have the honor to inform your lordship that on the 1st instant I sent a telegram to your lordship, as follows, viz: "In reference to terms of Washington treaty, it is understood that fish-oil includes seal-oil. Explanation will oblige this Government." And on the 3d instant received the following reply, viz: "I am of opinion that fish-oil does not include seal-oil.—EARL KIMBERLY."

I have, &c.,

STEPHEN J. HILL.

The Right Honorable the EARL OF KIMBERLY,

&c., &c., &c.

Now you were asked a question what you thought of the exclusion of that oil.

Mr. WHITEWAY. He didn't answer it.

Mr. DANA. You withdrew it, didn't you? Perhaps this letter occurred to your mind.

The PRESIDENT. We suggested that the question had better be withdrawn.

By Sir ALEXANDER GALT:

Q. Before you leave, there are one or two questions I would like to ask you. We have been told by a witness—I think it was a pilot—that there was a difference in the appearance of the codfish that was caught in certain waters. I would like to ask if you have noticed that yourself?—A. Yes, there are a great many varieties of cod. They are, as far as I believe, one species, but they assume peculiar varieties, depending upon the particular bottom they are found on and the food they consume. Experts will tell you from what Banks particular fish are taken. For instance, inshore cod are nearly all red, while outside cod are gray. Some have larger heads, some smaller, some have stout shoulders, and some are slender, but all these differences are local and do not involve a distinction of species.

Q. Would not that, in your opinion, confirm the theory that the cod is not really a migratory fish?—A. It would. That is very good evidence that there is no great migration.

Q. There is another question I wished to ask you. You gave us a very interesting account of a company that has been formed for the purpose of catching these predaceous fish, and you seemed to think it would have the effect of materially diminishing their numbers. Well, if human means can reduce the predaceous fish, would you not think that the appliances that are being used by fishermen must be diminishing the edible fish?—A. I don't think that the amount captured by man has any appreciable influence upon the supply of fish in the sea. ✓

Q. Well, that is what I understood you to say.—A. That whatever effect is produced by waste or extravagance in the capture of the fish is itself so trifling, in proportion to the natural wear and tear of the fish, that it may be thrown entirely out of account. The report of the British Fishery Commission is very satisfactory on that point.

Q. The only reason why I asked the question was that you seemed to think this company would succeed in reducing the number of predaceous fish.—A. Well, those are large and take a long time to get their growth. You can imagine a limit to the abundance of certain fish like the shark, though you cannot to the other fish, such as the cod and the mackerel.

Q. You are United States Commissioner. Are you clothed with authority respecting the several States of the Union?—A. No.

Q. Well, have you any authority?—A. I have none, except that they are all perfectly willing to have me spend all the money I will in their ports, and that they are willing to have me put as many shad, salmon, and cod, and useful food-fishes as I think I can spare in their waters.

Q. Have the United States collectively or the individual States the constitutional control over their fisheries; that is, their inshore fisheries?—A. The river fisheries are under the control of the several States, and the question of the jurisdiction of the sea fisheries has not yet been settled. For the present it lies in the States. The general Government has exercised no control or authority on the inshore fisheries.

By Hon. Mr. KELLOGG:

Q. Referring to your hypothesis about the waters of the world being supplied with one kind of fish as another leaves, what have you to say in regard to the whale fishery; what is going to supply that?—A. Well, a fishery diminishes to a certain extent until it does not pay, and then is abandoned. After being let alone it increases and again becomes a profitable enterprise.

Q. Have any of the species of fish that were used in ancient times disappeared? They used fish in ancient times just as much as they do now. Do you know of any tribe having actually disappeared?—A. The only kind of fish that has gone entirely out, so far as I know, is a kind of mackerel that was formerly found, known as the chub-mackerel or big-eye mackerel. It was formerly well known. Thirty years ago it was extremely common, a steady measurable article of the fish supply. I have been in search of specimens ever since I have been in my present line of inquiry, and have a standing offer of \$25 for a specimen, but it has not been produced. There are many instances of the local abandonment of extensive shores. For instance, herring was formerly abundant on the coast of Sweden.

Q. Do you refer to a distinct species of mackerel?—A. A totally distinct species. We had two species on our coast and now we have only one. I dare say there may be a few, but we don't find them as formerly.

The following statistics, prepared by Mr. G. Brown Goode, are quoted from pages 3357, 3360-3 of the documents and proceedings of the Halifax Commission :

Estimated total of American fisheries for 1876.

Consolidated table of sea fisheries east of Cape May	\$13,030,821
Lake fisheries in 1872 (Milner).....	1,600,000
Products of whale fishery	2,737,379
	17,368,200

This is exclusive of all river fisheries; of the river fisheries of salmon, shad, alewives, and striped bass; of the coast fisheries south of Delaware Bay (mullet, bluefish, menhaden, &c.); of all the Pacific coast fisheries (salmon, cod, haddock, &c.); of the shell-fish (oysters, clams, &c.); of the Crustaceans (lobsters, crabs, &c.); of sponges; of skins; of fur and other seals, and of their oil. For these, thirty millions of dollars (\$30,000,000) is considered to be a reasonable estimate.

Weirs and traps on the southern coast of New England.

Locality.	Weirs and traps.	Men.
South side of Cape Cod	23	88
Martha's Vineyard Sound	9	36
Buzzard's Bay	30	90
Block Island	3	12
Narragansett Bay	30	210
Total	95	436

In addition to the above there are one hundred fykes, managed by fourteen men.

Table showing the statistics of the manufacture of menhaden oil and guano in the United States in the years 1873, 1874, 1875, 1876.

	1873.	1874.	1875.	1876.
Number of factories in operation	62	64	60	64
Number of sail-vessels employed.....	383	283	304	320
Number of steam-vessels employed.....	20	25	39	
Number of men employed in fisheries	1,009	871		
Number of men employed in factories	1,197	1,567		
Total number of men employed.....	2,306	2,438	2,633	2,758
Amount of capital invested.....	\$2,388,000	\$2,500,000	\$2,650,000	\$2,750,000
Number of fish taken	397,700,000	492,878,000	563,327,000	512,450,000
Number of fish taken (estimated in barrels)	1,193,100	1,478,634	1,887,767	1,535,885
Number of gallons of oil made	2,214,800	3,372,837	2,681,487	2,992,000
Number of tons of guano made.....	36,299	50,976	53,625	51,245
Number of gallons of oil held by manufacturers at the end of the year.....	484,520	648,000	125,000	264,000
Number of tons of guano held by manufacturers at the end of the year.....	2,700	5,200	1,850	7,275
Value of oil, at 37 cents.....	\$819,476	\$1,247,950	\$902,140	\$1,107,040
Value of guano, at \$1.....	\$399,199	\$560,736	\$589,875	\$503,695
Total value of manufactured products.....	\$1,218,675	\$1,808,686	\$1,582,015	\$1,670,735

Total number of menhaden annually taken on the coast of the United States, estimate 750,000,000.

In 1874 one company, on the coast of New Jersey, put up 30,000 dozen boxes of menhaden in oil, under the name of "American sardines," the value of which was, at least, \$90,000.

On the coast of New England thirty-five decked vessels and numerous small ones, engage in the bait fishery, the catch of which approximates 100,000 barrels annually, worth from \$100,000 to \$130,000.

In the following table the cured cod have been restored to their green weight (three times as much). The salted mackerel have been restored to their green weight (one-sixth additional). By inshore fisheries is meant those conducted from shore, and by offshore fisheries those conducted in large vessels, principally those having over 20 tons burden.

Products of marine fisheries of Northern Atlantic States.

Kinds of fish.	Inshore fisheries.				Offshore fisheries.				Aggregate of values.
	Pounds.	Price	Wholesale value.	Retail value.	Pounds.	Price	Wholesale value.	Retail value.	
Flounders and Flatfish. Halibut:	*1,827,000	4	*\$73,080	8	*\$109,620				\$109,620
Fresh, New York ..					12,339,000	4	\$493,560	15	\$1,172,205
Cured ..					1,000,000	10	100,000	15	125,000
Fins ..					8,476,000	2	169,520	15	236,010
Naples ..					200,000	54	10,500	74	12,750
Cod:					10,000	24	250	3	275
Fresh, New York ..	5,000,000	5	250,000	8	400,000	6 ¹ / ₂			
Cured ..	29,480,000	3	600,000	5	1,000,000	4 ¹ / ₂			
Red ..	80,000	1			800	24	1,300	20	
Rices ..	100,000	3	3,000	8	8,000	5 ¹ / ₂	5,500		
Tomcod ..	250,000	3	7,500	5	12,500	4	10,000		
Cunner ..	615,550	8	49,244	15	92,332	11 ¹ / ₂	70,788		
Mackerel:									
Fresh ..	3,481,000	8	278,480	15	522,150	11 ¹ / ₂	400,315	2,615,000	8
Cured ..									35,632,900
Spanish Mackerel ..	105,000	25	26,250	30	31,500	27 ¹ / ₂	28,875		
Bonito ..	2,200,000	5	110,000	8	176,000	6 ¹ / ₂	143,000		
Pompano ..	5,000	60	3,000	100	5,000	8 ¹ / ₂	4,000		
Swordfish ..	1,500,000	7	105,000	15	225,000	11	165,000		
Butterfish \$..	50,000	4	2,000	8	4,000	6	3,000		
Soleteague ..	90,000	2	1,800	3	2,700	2 ¹ / ₂	2,250		
Kingfish ..	1,727,600	6	103,656	10	172,700	8	138,208		
Spotted and Croaker ..	10,000	15	1,500	25	2,500	20	2,000		
Sheepshead ..	75,000	5	3,750	10	7,500	7 ¹ / ₂	5,625		
Scup ..	75,000	15	11,250	20	15,000	17 ¹ / ₂	10,125		
Sea Bass ..	7,765,000	5	388,000	8	620,800	6 ¹ / ₂	504,400		
Striped Bass ..	568,500	10	59,850	15	89,775	12 ¹ / ₂	74,812 ¹ / ₂		
Bluefish ..	123,200	15	18,480	20	24,640	17 ¹ / ₂	21,560		
Smelt ..	7,068,000	4	282,720	8	565,440	6	424,080		
Menniden ..	224,834,000	10	40,000	15	60,000	12 ¹ / ₂	50,000		
Eels ..	250,000	12	30,000	18	46,000	15	37,500		
Sturgeon ..	75,000	5	3,750	10	7,500	7 ¹ / ₂	5,625		
Sea Shad ..	3,770,200	5	188,510	7 ¹ / ₂	282,765	6 ¹ / ₂	235,637 ¹ / ₂		
Salmon ..	40,100								
Alewife ..	7,385,000	4	36,925	1	73,856	4	55,387 ¹ / ₂		

* From Report of Bureau of Statistics. † Gloucester, Boston, &c., fitchies.

‡ Sturges, Boston, &c., flitches.

§ Including whiting and white perch.

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APPENDIX B.

SCIENTIFIC INVESTIGATION.

II.—A REVIEW OF THE FLOUNDERS AND SOLES (PLEURONECTIDÆ) OF AMERICA AND EUROPE.

BY DAVID STARR JORDAN AND DAVID KOP GOSS.

In this paper we have tried to give the synonymy of all the genera and species of flounders and soles (*Pleuronectidae*) found in the waters of America and Europe, together with analytical keys by which the groups may be distinguished.

The material we have examined includes (1) all the flounders in the museum of the Indiana University, which contains a large representation of the species found on our Pacific coast, in the Gulf of Mexico, and in the Mediterranean; (2) much, but not all, of the material contained in the United States National Museum, more especially the specimens collected by Dr. Jordan and by Dr. Gilbert; and (3) all the flounders contained in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, at Cambridge, Mass. This museum is rich in South American forms, the collections made by Professor Agassiz, Dr. Steindachner, and others for this museum being very extensive. Only the collections in the Indiana University have been studied by the junior author; for all statements regarding other specimens, and, in general, for everything said regarding the South American species, the senior author is responsible. We are under special obligations to Prof. Alexander Agassiz, director of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, and to Mr. Samuel Garman, curator of the fishes, for many courtesies in connection with our studies in that museum.

We regard the order of *Heterosomata* ("flat-fishes," with both eyes on the same side of the head) as constituting a single family, *Pleuronectidae*. •We find ourselves unable to separate the soles as a distinct family from the flounders. The characters which mark them as a group seem no more important than those which set off one subfamily of flounders from another.

The group of "*Bibriidae*" recently recognized by some of the Italian ichthyologists as a separate family ("*Eibronidi*") is composed entirely of larval forms in the early stages of their development. In this condition the eyes are symmetrical and the body translucent. Several generic names have been given to these peculiar forms (*Peloria*, *Bibronia*, *Coccolus*, *Charybdia*, *Bascanius*, *Delothyrus*), but, of course, these genera can have no permanent place in the system. *Peloria* has been shown by Dr. Emery to be the young of *Platophrys* (*Rhomboïdichthys*). The others seem to belong to the *Cynoglossinae* or to some allied group, but we are not yet certain as to the correct identification of any of them.

We recognize among the *Pleuronectidae* seven subfamilies—*Hippoglossinae*, *Pleuronectinae*, *Samarinæ*, *Platessinæ*, *Oncopterinae*, *Soleinæ*, and *Cynoglossinae*. The *Samarinæ* and *Oncopterinae* are all of recent discovery. The other groups correspond exactly to the five "subgenera" (*Hippoglossus*, *Rhombus*, *Platessa*, *Solea*, and *Plagusia*) recognized by Cuvier. These subfamilies are natural groups and are in most cases easily distinguished, although some few aberrant genera exist which serve as links joining one group to another. Thus *Isopsetta* of the *Platessinæ* is certainly a near ally of *Psettichthys*, which is as certainly a genuine member of the *Hippoglossinae*.

The *Hippoglossinae* and the *Platessinæ* are largely arctic in their distribution, few of the former group and none of the latter extending into the tropics. The *Oncopterinae* seem to take the place of the *Platessinæ* in antarctic waters, but the species of this group are few in number. The *Pleuronectinae* and the soles are, on the other hand, essentially warm-water fishes, their representatives in the north being comparatively few. The *Samarinæ* are few in number and belong to the East Indian fauna.

As the tropical *Hippoglossinae* and all the *Pleuronectinae* are sinistral species, the eyes and color being on the left side of the body, it follows that the tropical flounders are nearly all left-sided species, while those of arctic and antarctic waters are chiefly dextral species, the eyes and color on the right.

Still more curious is the relation between the number of vertebræ and the geographical distribution of the various species.

It has been already noticed by Dr. Günther and others that in some groups of fishes northern representatives have the number of vertebræ increased. In no group is this more striking than in the flounders, as the following table showing the numbers of the vertebræ in various species will clearly show. The numbers inclosed in brackets are copied from Dr. Günther; the others represent our own count of specimens contained in the museum of the Indiana University.

Numbers of vertebræ in flounders.

I.—HIPPOGLOSSINÆ.

<i>Hippoglossus hippoglossus</i>	16 + 34 = 50
<i>Atheresthes stomias</i>	12 + 37 = 49
<i>Hippoglossoides platessoides</i>	13 + 32 = 45
<i>Lyopsetta exilis</i>	11 + 34 = 45
<i>Eopsetta jordani</i>	11 + 32 = 43
<i>Psettichthys melanostictus</i>	11 + 29 = 40
<i>Paralichthys oblongus</i>	11 + 30 = 41
<i>Paralichthys dentatus</i>	10 + 30 = 40
<i>Paralichthys lethostigma</i>	10 + 27 = 37
<i>Paralichthys alboguttata</i>	10 + 27 = 37
<i>Paralichthys californicus</i>	10 + 25 = 35
<i>Xystreurus liolepis</i>	12 + 25 = 37
<i>Aucylopsetta quadrocellata</i>	9 + 26 = 35

II.—PLEURONECTINÆ.

Monolene sessilicauda	[43]
Lepidorhombus whiff-agonis	[11 + 30 = 41]
Citharichthys sordidus	11 + 29 = 40
Platophrys lunatus	9 + 30 = 39
Arnoglossus laterna	10 + 28 = 38
Arnoglossus grohmanni	10 + 28 = 38
Zeugopterus punctatus	[12 + 25 = 37]
Platophrys ocellatus	10 + 27 = 37
Pleuronectes maculatus	11 + 25 = 36
Pleuronectes rhombus	12 + 24 = 36
Syacium papillosum	11 + 25 = 36
Citharichthys arctifrons	10 + 26 = 36
Syacium micrurum	10 + 25 = 35
Phrynorhombus regius	10 + 25 = 35
Citharichthys spilopterus	10 + 24 = 34
Citharichthys macrops	10 + 24 = 34
Etropus microstomus	10 + 24 = 34
Etropus crossotus	10 + 24 = 34
Azevia panamensis	33
Pleuronectes maximus	12 + 19 = 31

III.—PLATESSINÆ.

Glyptocephalus zachirus	13 + 52 = 65
Glyptocephalus cynoglossus	[58]
Microstomus pacificus	12 + 40 = 52
Microstomus kitt	[13 + 35 = 48]
Parophrys vetulus	11 + 33 = 44
Platessa platessa	[14 + 29 = 43]
Isopsetta isolepis	10 + 32 = 42
Lepidopsetta bilineata	11 + 29 = 40
Limanda limanda	[40]
Liopsetta glacialis	13 + 27 = 40
Pleuronichthys decurrens	14 + 26 = 40
Pleuronichthys verticalis	13 + 25 = 38
Platessa glabra	11 + 26 = 37
Platessa flesus	[12 + 24 = 36]
Pseudopleuronectes americanus	10 + 26 = 36
Hypsopsetta guttulata	11 + 24 = 35
Platichthys stellatus	12 + 23 = 35

IV.—SOLEINÆ.

Brachirus zebra	[8+41= 49]
Solea solea	9+40= 49
Solea kleini	10+37= 47
Solea aurantiaca	[46]
Monochirurus ocellatus	9+28= 37
Monochirurus luteus	8+29= 37
Monochirurus hispidus	9+25= 34
Achirus fasciatus	8+20= 28
Achirus inscriptus	9+19= 28

V.—CYNOGLOSSINÆ.

Syphurus atricauda	10+42= 52
Syphurus nigrescens	9+40= 49
Syphurus plagiusa	9+38= 47

The subdivision of the flounders into genera leaves room for considerable variety of opinion. Most of the species are well defined and easily recognized, but they do not fall readily into generic groups unless we regard almost every well-marked species as the type of a distinct genus. A natural result of an attempt at sharply defining the genera is to reach what seems an extreme degree of generic subdivision. On the other hand, attempts to unite these smaller groups to form larger ones often leave these larger ones at once unnatural and ill-defined.

It will probably appear to some that the process of generic subdivision has been in this paper carried too far. It is possible that this is true, but the arrangement which we have adopted seems to bring out the relations of the different forms better than can be done by a more "conservative" view of the genera. For those who would reduce the number of groups we suggest the following list of genera as representing a not unnatural mode of arrangement.

I.—HIPPOGLOSSINÆ.

ATHERESTHES.

PLATYSOMATICITHYS.

HIPPOGLOSSUS.

HIPPOGLOSSOIDES $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Lyopsetta. \\ Eopsetta. \\ Hippoglossoides. \end{array} \right.$

PSETTICITHYS.

HIPPOGLOSSINA $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Hippoglossina. \\ Xystreurus. \end{array} \right.$

PARALICHTHYS $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Paralichthys. \\ Acanlopsetta. \end{array} \right.$

II.—PLEURONECTIDÆ.

PHRYNORHOMBUS.

ZEUGOPTERUS.

LEPIDORHOMBUS.

CITHARUS.

PLEURONECTES $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Bothus. \\ Pleuronectes. \end{array} \right.$

ARNOGLOSSUS.

PLATOPHRYNS.

CITHARICITHYS $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Syacium. \\ Orthopsetta. \\ Citharichthys. \\ Azevia. \\ Etropus. \\ Thysanopsetta. \end{array} \right.$

MONOLENE.

III.—PLATESSINÆ.

PLEURONICHTHYS $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} Pleuronichthys. \\ Hypsopsetta. \end{array} \right.$

ISOPSETTA.

PLATESSA	<i>Parophrys.</i>
	<i>Inopsetta.</i>
	<i>Lepidopsetta.</i>
	<i>Limanda.</i>
	<i>Pseudopleuronectes.</i>
	<i>Platessa.</i>
	<i>Flesus.</i>
	<i>Liopsetta.</i>
	<i>Platichthys.</i>
	MICROSTOMUS.

CYNICOGLOSSUS.

IV.—ONCOPTERINÆ.

ONCOPTERUS.

V.—SOLEINÆ.

APIONICHTHYS	<i>Apionichthys.</i>
	<i>Achiropsis.</i>

GYMNACHIRUS.

ACHIRUS	<i>Achirus.</i>
	<i>Baiostoma.</i>

MONOCHIRUS	<i>Monochirus.</i>
	<i>Microchirus.</i>
	<i>Quenselia.</i>

SOLEA.

BRACHIRUS.

VI.—CYNOGLOSSINÆ.

SYMPHURUS	<i>Sympodus.</i>	} Larval forms.
	<i>Bascanius.</i>	
	<i>Delothyrus.</i>	
	<i>Charybdis.</i>	
	<i>Bibronia.</i>	
	<i>Acedia.</i>	

ANALYSIS OF SUBFAMILIES OF PLEURONECTIDÆ.

- a. *Flounders*: Edge of preopercle free; mouth with developed teeth; pectoral and ventrals well developed (one pectoral* or one ventral occasionally absent).
 b. Mouth nearly symmetrical, the dentition nearly equally developed on both sides, the gape usually, but not always, wide.
 c. Ventral fins symmetrical, similar in position and in form of base, the ventral fin of the eyed side not being extended along the ridge of the abdomen.

HIPPOGLOSSINÆ I.

- cc. Ventral fins unsymmetrical, dissimilar in position and usually also in form, the ventral fin of the eyed side being extended along the ridge of the abdomen. Eyes and color on the left side PLEURONECTINÆ II.†

* Both pectorals are wanting in the genus *Mancopsetta* Gill (= *Lepidopsetta* Gthr.), an antarctic member of the *Pleuronectinæ*.

† In the *Samarina*, the eyes and color are on the right side, the mouth is small but nearly symmetrical, the ventral fins are both lateral but with base somewhat prolonged, the gill-rakers are minute, and in most of the species some of the dorsal rays are filamentous and simple, resembling spines. The group, like the *Oncopterinae*, seems to lie between *Pleuronectinæ* and *Plateassinæ*. It seems to include the genera *Samaris*, *Lophonectes*, *Paxilopsetta*, and *Nematops*, all belonging to the Indo-Pacific fauna.

- bb. Mouth unsymmetrical, the jaws on the eyed side with nearly straight outline, the bones on the blind side strongly curved; teeth chiefly on the blind side.
- d. Ventral fins unsymmetrical, that of the eyed side extended along the ridge of the abdomen, snout with a free ray or other appendage in connection with the first ray of the dorsal. Eyes and color on the right side.

ONCOPTERINÆ III.

- dd. Ventral fins nearly or quite symmetrical, that of the eyed side with short base; eyes and color on the right side (with occasional exceptions).

PLATESSINÆ IV.

- aa. Soles. Edge of preopercle adnate, usually obscured by the scales; mouth very small, much twisted toward the blind side, and with rudimentary teeth; pectoral and ventral fins generally small, occasionally obsolete.
- e. Eyes on the right side, separated by a bony ridge SOLEINÆ V.
- ee. Eyes on the left side, not separated by a bony ridge.... CYNOGLOSSINÆ VI.

ANALYSIS OF GENERA OF PLEURONECTIDÆ FOUND IN AMERICA AND EUROPE.

Subfamily I.—HIPPOGLOSSINÆ.

(Large-mouthed flounders with the ventral fins symmetrical.)

Mouth symmetrical, the jaws and the dentition nearly equally developed on both sides; gape usually wide, the maxillary more than one-third length of head. Lower pharyngeals narrow, usually with but one or two rows of sharp teeth; teeth in jaws usually acute. Eyes large; edge of preopercle free. Pectoral and ventral fins well developed, the ventral fins similar in position and in form of base, the ventral fin of the eyed side not being attached along the ridge of the abdomen. Septum of gill cavity without foramen.

- a. Vertebrae and fin-rays much increased in number (the vertebrae about 50, the dorsal rays about 100, the anal rays about 85); body comparatively elongate; caudal fin lunate; lateral line simple; anal spine mostly obsolete. Dextral species, Arctic in distribution. (Genera allied to *Hippoglossus*.)
- c. Large teeth in both jaws arrow-shaped, biserial, some of them depressible; upper eye with vertical range; gill-rakers short; scales deciduous, ciliated; lateral line without arch; flesh soft. Vertebrae (*stomias*) $12+37=49$ ATHERESTHES, 1.
- cc. Large teeth not arrow-shaped, biserial above, uniserial below; scales very small, cycloid; gill-rakers long and slender; eyes strictly lateral.
- d. Lateral line without anterior arch; lower pharyngeal teeth uniserial.

PLATYSOMATICITHYS, 2.

- dd. Lateral line with an interior arch; lower pharyngeal teeth biserial; vertebrae (*hippoglossus*) $16+34=50$ HIPPOGLOSSUS, 3.
- aa. Vertebrae and fin-rays in moderate number (vertebrae less than 46, dorsal rays less than 95, anal rays less than 75); caudal fin double truncate or rounded, the median rays longest.
- f. Lateral line without distinct anterior arch; vertebrae, 40 to 46; body normally dextral;* caudal peduncle distinct; scales ciliated; anal spine usually strong. Species of subarctic distribution. (Genera allied to *Hippoglossoides*.)

*Frequently sinistral in *Hippoglossoides classodon*.

- g. Lateral line simple (without accessory dorsal branch); teeth sharp, those of lower jaw uniserial; dorsal beginning above eye.
- h. Teeth in the upper jaw biserial.
- i. Scales comparatively large, thin, and deciduous (lateral line 70); body slender, the flesh soft; vertebræ (*exilis*) $11+34=45$.
- LYOPSETTA, 4.
- ii. Scales small and adherent (lateral line 96); body robust, the flesh firm; vertebræ (*jordani*) $11+32=43$ EOPSETTA, 5.
- hh. Teeth in the upper jaw uniserial; scales small and flesh-firm; vertebræ (*platessoides*) $13+32=45$ HIPPOGLOSSOIDES, 6.
- gg. Lateral line with an accessory dorsal branch; vertebræ 40 to 42; scales small, firm, ctenoid; dorsal fin beginning before the eye; teeth sharp, unequal, some of them canine-like; mouth not large; lower pharyngeal teeth sharp, uniserial; vertebræ (*melanostictus*) $11+29=40$ PSETTICHTHYS, 7.
- ff. Lateral line with a strong arch in front; no accessory branch; vertebræ in smaller number (35 to 41); teeth uniserial; anal spine usually obsolete; body normally sinistral.* (Species chiefly of the temperate or sub-tropical seas, none of them Arctic and none European.) (Genera allied to *Paralichthys*.)
- k. Dorsal fin beginning above the pupil; gill-rakers short and thick; teeth rather small; no canines; body indifferently dextral or sinistral (in some species at least).
- l. Scales ctenoid HIPPGLOSSINA, 8.
- ll. Scales cycloid; caudal fin subsessile, the caudal peduncle extremely short; skin of shoulder-girdle with patches of cup-shaped scales; vertebræ (*liolepis*) $12+25=37$ XYSTREURYS, 9.
- kk. Dorsal fin beginning in advance of eye.
- m. Scales weakly ciliated; caudal fin with a distinct peduncle; teeth unequal, some of the anterior canine-like; gill-rakers rather long and slender; vertebræ, 35 to 41 PARALICHTHYS, 10.
- mm. Scales very strongly ctenoid on both sides of body; mouth smallish, with small, sharp teeth; anterior rays of dorsal notably exerted, the rays of the anterior part of the fin longer than some of those further back, thus forming a more or less distinct lobe; gill membranes considerably united; gill-rakers short and broad; caudal peduncle short; left ventral produced; vertebræ (*quadrocellata*) $9+26=35$ ANCYLOPSETTA, 11.

Subfamily II.—PLEURONECTINÆ.

(*Large-mouthed flounders, with the ventral fins unsymmetrical.*)

Mouth symmetrical, the dentition nearly equally developed on both sides; gape usually wide (narrow in *Platophrys*, *Etropus*, etc.), the maxillary commonly more than one-third length of head. Lower pharyngeals narrow, each with one or more rows or a narrow band of small, sharp teeth; teeth in jaws acute. Eyes not minute; pectorals and ventrals usually well developed. Edge of preopercle free. Ventral fins dissimilar in form or in position, that of the left or eyed side inserted on the ridge of the abdomen, its base extended along this ridge, its rays more or less wide apart. Caudal fin rounded or subtruncate; no ac-

*Dextral in some species of *Hippoglossina*; occasionally dextral in some species of *Paralichthys* and *Xystreurus*.

cessory lateral line; anal spine usually weak or obsolete; a pelvic spine sometimes developed. Vertebræ in moderate or small number, 31 to 40 (except in *Monolene*). Body sinistral. Species chiefly tropical or sub-tropical in distribution.

- a. Pectoral fin of both sides present; dorsal rays less than 100.
- b. Septum of gill cavity between gill arches and the termination of the shoulder-girdle with a large foramen; the emargination below the shoulder-girdle near the isthmus not deep; lateral line with a strong arch in front; last rays of dorsal and anal inserted more or less on the right side of the median line; teeth subequal, in bands.
- c. Vomer toothless; ventral fins free from the anal; caudal fin subsessile; scales small, each with very long spinules; vertebræ (*regius*) $10 + 25 = 35$ *PHRYNORHOMBUS*, 12.
- cc. Vomer with teeth.
- d. Ventral of eyed side united to the anal; scales small, very rough; body ovate; vertebræ (*punctatus*) $12 + 25 = 37$.
- dd. Ventral fins free from the anal; scales ciliated, deciduous; body oblong, much compressed; vertebræ (*whiffiagonis*) $11 + 30 = 41$.
- ee. Septum of gill cavity below gill-arches, without foramen; a deep emargination near the isthmus; ventral fins free from anal.
- f. Teeth unequal, those of the upper jaw biserial, some of them canine-like; scales weakly ciliated; body elongate; mouth very large..... *CITHARUS*, 15.
- ff. Teeth subequal, in villiform bands; body broadly ovate; caudal fin subsessile; interorbital area broad; scales small, cycloid, or wanting; vertebræ 31 to 36..... *PLEURONECTES*, 16.
- ee. Vomer toothless; ventral fins free from anal; caudal fin subsessile.
- h. Lateral line with a distinct arch in front; teeth small, uniserial, or imperfectly biserial.
 - i. Interorbital area a narrow ridge, sometimes with a median groove.
 - j. Scales cycloid or weakly ciliated, deciduous; vertebræ $10 + 28 = 38$ *ARNOGLOSSUS*, 17.
 - ii. Interorbital space more or less broad, deeply concave; scales small, ctenoid, adherent; body ovate (pectoral of left side usually filamentous in the male); vertebræ (*lunatus*) $9 + 30 = 39$ *PLATOPHYRYS*, 18.
- hh. Lateral line without arch in front; scales ciliated.
- k. Teeth in upper jaw biserial, in the lower uniserial, the front teeth of upper jaw enlarged; vertebræ 35 or 36.
- jj. Teeth in both jaws uniserial; interorbital space very narrow, the ridges coalescing between the eyes.
- l. Mouth not very small, the maxillary more than one-third length of head.
- m. Gill-rakers very short and thick, tubercle-like; scales small, firm, ctenoid *AZEVIA*, 20.
- mm. Gill-rakers slender, of moderate length; scales thin, deciduous, ciliated; vertebræ 34 to 40.... *CITHARICHTHYS*, 21.

- ll. Mouth very small, the teeth subequal, the maxillary less than one-third length of head.
- n. Teeth uniserial; vertebræ $9 + 25 = 34$ *ETROPLUS*, 22.
- nn. Teeth in villiform bands *THYSANOPSETTA*, 23.
- aa. Pectoral fin of blind side wanting; eyes very close together; caudal fin subsessile; teeth small, uniserial; mouth moderate; lateral line of eyed side arched, that of right side nearly straight; dorsal fin beginning on snout, its anterior rays not exerted, its rays all simple and very numerous; scales small; body thin, very elongate; vertebræ (*sessilicauda*) 43; (deep-sea flounders, of uncertain relationship).

MONOLENE, 24.

Subfamily III.—ONCOPTERINÆ.

(Small-mouthed flounders, with the right ventral fin extending along the ridge of the abdomen, dorsal beginning at the snout, a bony prominence of some sort connected with its first ray; eyes and color on the right side.)

- a. Left side of snout with a horizontal slit-like cavity, into which a curved, bony, ray-like appendage is depressible; lateral line with an anterior arch and with numerous accessory branches nearly at right angles with it; scales cycloid; right ventral fin free from the anal fin; left ventral fin present; gill-rakers short and slender..... *ONCOPTERUS*, 25.

Subfamily IV.—PLATESSINÆ.

Mouth small, unsymmetrical, the jaws on the eyed side with nearly straight outline, the bones on the blind side strongly curved; dentition chiefly developed on the blind side; eyes large; edge of preopercle not hidden by the scales; pectoral fins well developed; vertical fins well separated; ventral fins nearly or quite symmetrical; anal spine usually strong (obsolete in *Microstomus*). Body dextral (except frequently in *Platichthys stellatus*). Species arctic or subarctic in distribution.

- a. Vertebræ in moderate number (from $10 + 26 = 36$ to $11 + 33 = 44$); dorsal rays 65 to 80; anal rays 45 to 60.
- b. Teeth small, acute, in several series; lateral line nearly straight, with an accessory dorsal branch; lower pharyngeals narrow, with small biserial teeth; scales cycloid. (Genera allied to *Pleuronichthys*).
- c. Lips thick—each with several longitudinal folds; dorsal fin beginning on the blind side; vertebræ 38 to 40. *PLEURONICHTHYS*, 26.
- cc. Lips simple; dorsal fin beginning on the median line; vertebræ (*guttulatus*) $11 + 24 = 35$ *HYPSSOPSETTA*, 27.
- bb. Teeth chiefly uniserial, all more or less blunt, conical or incisor-like. (Genera allied to *Platessa*).
- d. Lateral line with an accessory dorsal branch.
- e. Lateral line without distinct arch in front.
- f. Teeth compressed, incisor-like, close-set.
- g. Scales closely imbricated, mostly cycloid; upper eye on median line; vertebræ (*vetus*) $11 + 33 = 44$ *PAROPHRRYS*, 28.
- gg. Scales scarcely imbricated, all very strongly ctenoid; eyes both lateral..... *INOPSETTA*, 29.

- ff.* Teeth conical, separated, not incisor-like; scales closely imbricated, all strongly etenoid; mouth comparatively large (approaching that of *Psettidichthys*); vertebræ (*isolepis*) $10 + 32 = 42$*ISOPSETTA*, 36.
- ee.* Lateral line with a distinct arch in front; scales imbricated, rough-etenoid; vertebræ (*bilineata*) $11 + 29 = 40$.*LEPIDOPSETTA*, 31.
- dd.* Lateral line without accessory dorsal branch.
- h.* Lateral line with a distinct arch in front; scales imbricated, rough-etenoid; vertebræ (*limanda*) 40*LIMANDA*, 32.
- hh.* Lateral line without distinct arch in front.
- i.* Scales regularly imbricate, all (on eyed side) etenoid in both sexes; no stellate tubercles on head nor on bases of dorsal and anal fins; teeth, incisor-like, close-set; lower pharyngeals very narrow, each with two rows of separate, conical teeth; fin rays scaly*PSEUDOPOLEURONECTES*, 33.
- ii.* Scales imperfectly imbricated, or else not all etenoid.
- j.* Scales chiefly cycloid in both sexes; lower pharyngeals small and narrow, separate, each with 1 to 4 rows of small, bluntish teeth*PLATESSA*, 34.
- jj.* Scales rough-etenoid in the male, more or less cycloid in the female (fin rays scaly in the male, naked in the female); lower pharyngeals very large, more or less united in the adult, their surface somewhat concave, the teeth in five or six rows, large, blunt, close-set; teeth in jaws incisor-like; fin-rays of dorsal, and anal without tubercles at base*LIOPSETTA*, 35.
- jjj.* Scales all in both sexes and on both sides of the body represented by coarse scattered stellate tubercles; similar tubercles between bases of dorsal and anal rays; lateral line without scales; lower pharyngeals broad, each with three rows of blunt, coarse teeth; teeth incisor-like*PLATICHTHYS*, 36.
- aa.* Vertebræ in increased number (varying from $13 + 35 = 48$ to $13 + 52 = 65$); dorsal rays 90 to 120; anal rays 70 to 100; teeth broad, incisor-like; scales small, all cycloid. (Genera allied to *Glyptocephalus*).
- k.* Left side of skull normal; anal spine obsolete; vertebræ 48 to 52.....*MICROSTOMUS*, 37.
- kk.* Left side of skull, with large mucous cavities; anal spine strong; vertebræ 58 to 65.....*GLYPTOCEPHALUS*, 38.

Subfamily V.—SOLEINÆ.

(*Soles with the eyes on the right side, and separated by a bony ridge.*)

Body oblong or elongate, with the eyes and color on the right side; eyes moderate or small, separated by a distinct bony ridge, the upper eye usually more or less in advance of the lower; mouth small, more or less twisted towards the blind side; teeth little developed, in villiform bands; edge of preopercle adnate, usually concealed by the scales; gill openings more or less narrowed, the gill membranes adnate to the shoulder-girdle above; blind side of head usually with fringes; pectoral fins small, sometimes wanting; ventral fins developed, one or both of them sometimes obsolete; scales usually etenoid, rarely wanting; lateral line straight, usually single.

- a. Gill openings very small, separate, each reduced to a slight slit below angle of opercle; right ventral beginning at the chin, confluent with the anal; pectoral fins wanting or very small; lateral line present, straight; eyes small; snout dilated, the dorsal beginning upon it.
- b. Scales present, ctenoid; caudal fin somewhat confluent with dorsal.
- c. Left ventral rudimentary, with two rays *APIONICHTHYS*, 39.
- cc. Left ventral well developed, with five rays *ACHIROPSIS*, 40.
- bb. Scales none; caudal fin not confluent with dorsal and anal. *GYMNACHIRUS*, 41.
- aa. Gill openings of moderate extent, confluent below.
- d. Vertical fins well separated.
- e. Right ventral fin with extended base, confluent with the anal fin; vertebræ about 28; body ovate in outline, the depth nearly half the length; pectoral fins rudimentary or wanting; lateral line straight; scales well developed, ctenoid, those on the head more or less enlarged, those of the blind side of the head with fringes *ACHIRUS*, 42.
- ee. Right ventral fin with short base, free from the anal; vertebræ 34 to 50; body elliptical or elongate, the depth one-third to two-fifths the length; lateral line single* on both sides.
- f. Vertebrae 34 to 40; body oblong; pectoral fins usually small, sometimes wanting on the blind side *MONOCHIRUS*, 43.
- ff. Vertebrae 47 to 50; body elongate; pectoral fins subequal, present on both sides *SOLEA*, 44.
- dd. Vertical fins fully confluent around the short tail, body oblong; scales very small, ctenoid; vertebrae (*zebra*) $8 + 41 = 49$ *BRACHIRUS*, 45.

Subfamily VI.—CYNOGLOSSINÆ.

(*Soles with the eyes on the left side, not separated by a bony ridge.*)

Body elongate, more or less lanceolate in outline, with the eyes and color on the left side; eyes small, very close together, with no distinct interorbital ridge between them; mouth small, twisted toward the blind side; teeth little developed, in villiform bands; edge of preopercle covered by the scales; gill openings narrow, the gill membranes adnate to the shoulder girdle above, joined together and free from the isthmus below; pectoral fins wanting (in the adult); ventral fins small, that of the blind side often wanting; vertical fins more or less confluent; scales ctenoid; lateral line sometimes wanting, sometimes duplicated.

- a. Ventral fin of eyed side only present, free from the anal; no pectoral fins; no lateral line; head without fringes *SYMPHURUS*, 46.

Subfamily I.—HIPPOGLOSSINÆ.

Genus I.—ATHERESTHES.

Atheresthes Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 51 (*stomias*).

TYPE: *Platysomatischys stomias* Jordan & Gilbert.

The single species which constitutes this genus is one of the most

* Two lateral lines on the blind side in the Asiatic genus, *Pardachirus*.

† Arrow-shaped canine-teeth are also found in the Asiatic genus *Psettodes* Bennett, a curious group somewhat allied to *Atheresthes*. In *Psettodes*, the caudal fin is rounded, the dorsal fin begins on the nape, above middle of the cheek, the scales are small and ctenoid, and there are no gill-rakers.

remarkable of the flounders. Of all the group, it approaches in form and general characters most nearly to the Gadoid fishes, from which we may presume the flounders to be descended, although Dr. Gill has suggested the possibility of their descent from Trachypteroid fishes.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF *ATHERESTHES*.

- a. Head about $\frac{3}{5}$ in length; depth, $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. 103, A. 86; Lat. l. 135. Gill-rakers about 4 + 12, long and slender; interorbital ridge broad, scaly; eyes large; vertebrae, 12 + 37 = 49. Color olive brown, the margins of the scales darker; blind side dusped with dark points; inside of mouth and gill-cavity black.

STOMIAS, 1.

1. *ATHERESTHES STOMIAS*.

(THE ARROW-TOOTHED HALIBUT.)

[Plate I.]

Platysomatischys stomias Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 51, 301, (San Francisco).

Atheresthes stomias Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 57, 454 (off San Francisco). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 242 (San Francisco, Port Etches, Afognak Island, Popoff Island, Shumagins). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 66 (Point Reyes to Farallones). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 820, 1882. Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 354 (Wrangel and Nabu Bay, Alaska). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 188, plate 53 (Point Reyes).

Habitat.—Coast of Alaska, southward in deep water to near San Francisco.

This species is not uncommon in the deep water off San Francisco, and is brought in in considerable numbers from the sweep-nets (*parran-zelle*) used in this region. Farther northward it is taken on the coast of Alaska, and it is properly a member of the Alaskan fauna.

Genus II.—PLATYSOMATICITHYS.

Reinhardtius Gill, Cat. Fishes East. Coast N. A., 1861, 50. (*Nomen nudum*.)

Platysomatischys Bleeker, Comptes Rendus, Acad. Sci. Amsterdam, xiii, 1862, 426. (*pinguis* = *hippoglossoides*.)

Reinhardtius Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 218. (*hippoglossoides*.)

TYPE: *Pleuronectes pinguis* Fabricius = *Pleuronectes hippoglossoides* Walbaum.

But a single species of this genus is known, an Arctic fish, in some degree intermediate between the true halibut and *Atheresthes*.

We continue to use the name *Platysomaticithys* for this genus, as the earlier name *Reinhardtius* was introduced without explanation or special designation of a type, although there is no question as to what species the author would have included in the group if he had taken the trouble to define it.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLATYSOMATICHTHYS.

- a. Head, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth, nearly 3; D. 100, A. 75; Lat. l. 160; interorbital space, broad, flat, scaly; color brown, nearly plain *HIPPOGLOSSOIDES*, 2.

2. PLATYSOMATICHTHYS HIPPOGLOSSOIDES.

(THE GREENLAND HALIBUT.)

[Plate II.]

Pleuronectes cynoglossus Fabricius, Fauna Grælandica, 1780, 163 (Greenland, not of Linnæus).

Pleuronectes hippoglossoides Walbaum, Artedi Piscium, 115, 1792 (based on Fabricius).

Reinhardtius hippoglossoides Gill, Cat. Fish. E. Coast N. A., 1861, 50 (name only). Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 218.

Platysomichthys hippoglossoides Goode & Bean, Bull. Essex Inst., ii, 7, 1879 (coast of Massachusetts and northward in deep water). Collett, Norske Nord Havs Exped., 1880, 142 (Finmark, Hammerfest). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 819. Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 197, pl. 56 (George's Bank and northward), and of late American writers generally.

Pleuronectes pinguis Fabricius, Zoologiske Bidrag., 1824, 43 (Greenland).

Hippoglossus pinguis Reinhardt, "Kgl. Dansk. Vidensk. Selsk., 116, 1838."

Platysomichthys pinguis Bleeker, l. c., 426, 1862.

Hippoglossus grælandicus Günther, iv, 404, 1862 (Greenland).

Habitat.—Arctic parts of the Atlantic, south to Finland and the Grand Banks.

Genus III.—HIPPOGLOSSUS.

Hippoglossus Cuvier, Règne Animal, ii, 1817 (*hippoglossus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes hippoglossus* L.

This genus contains but one species, the well-known halibut, abundant on both coasts of the North Atlantic and of the North Pacific.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF HIPPOGLOSSUS.

- a. Head, $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth, about 3; D. 105, A. 78; Lat. l. 150 or more; interorbital space, broad, flat, scaly; gill-rakers, few, short, compressed, wide-set; color, dark brown; vertebræ, $16 + 34 = 50$ *HIPPOGLOSSUS*, 3.

3. HIPPOGLOSSUS HIPPOGLOSSUS.

(THE HALIBUT.)

[Plate III.]

Pleuronectes hippoglossus Linnaeus, Systema Naturæ, ed. x, 269, 1758 (European Ocean) (of Gmelin, Bloch, and early writers generally).

Hippoglossus hippoglossus Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 133.

Hippoglossus vulgaris Fleming, British Animals, 1828, 197. Günther, iv, 403, 1862. Day, Fishes Great Britain, ii, 5, pl. xciv, and of European writers generally.

* Only an outline of the very extensive synonymy of this common food-fish is here given.

Hippoglossus vulgaris Storer, Fish. Mass., 145, 1839. DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 294, pl. 49, f. 157. Storer, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1847, 475. Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries, California, 1878-79, 39 (Farallone Islands). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 71 (San Francisco). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 63 (Unalashka and St. Michael's, Alaska, Eastport, Maine). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 454 (Puget Sound, San Francisco). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 471 (Fisher's Island, Connecticut, &c.); Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 66 (San Francisco, Cape Flattery). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 242 (San Francisco, Puget Sound, Port Althorp, Chugachik Bay, St. Paul, Unalashka, St. Michael's). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 819. Bean, Cat. Col. Fish. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 20 (Port Althorp, Alaska). Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 244, (Davis Straits, Greenland). Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquatic Anim., 1884, 189, plate 54 (Sandy Hook, Montauk Point, Block Island, and northward), and of American writers generally.

Hippoglossus maximus "Gott sche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 164."

Hippoglossus gigas Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Anim., ii, 1839.

Hippoglossus ponticus Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico, 1846, 47 (Black Sea, after Pallas).

Hippoglossus americanus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 220.

Habitat.—All northern seas, southward in deep water to France, Sandy Hook, and San Francisco.

The halibut, the largest and most widely distributed of all the *Pleuronectidae*, is too well known to require discussion here.

Genus IV.—LYOPSETTA.

Lyopsetta Jordan and Goss, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 135 (*exilis*).

TYPE: *Hippoglossoides exilis* Jordan & Gilbert.

This genus contains but a single species, a small, soft-bodied flounder, of the waters of the North Pacific. In its technical characters *Lyopsetta* is very close to *Hippoglossoides*, of which it might well be regarded a subgenus. The introduction of the name *Lyopsetta* is to be regretted from its close resemblance to *Liopsetta*, a word of similar sound, but very different meaning. At the time of the introduction of *Lyopsetta*, *Liopsetta* was regarded as an obsolete synonym.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LYOPSETTA.

- a. Body rather slender, the flesh soft; mouth rather small, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth small, slender, close-set, nearly uniform. Eyes very large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, separated by a sharp, scaly ridge. Scales rather large, thin, deciduous, weakly ctenoid; pectorals small, the right pectoral nearly 2 in head. Gill-rakers short, slender, $x+9$. Head, 4; depth, $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. 78, A. 62, Lat. l., 71. Vertebrae $11+34=45$. Pale brown, with dark points; bronze spots sometimes present; fins dusky; dorsal, anal, and ventrals edged with yellow.....EXILIS, 4.

4. LYOPSETTA EXILIS.

Hippoglossoides exilis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 154 (off San Francisco). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 454 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 67 (San Francisco, Point Reyes, Seattle, Puget Sound). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 827.

Habitat.—North Pacific, in rather deep water. San Francisco to Puget Sound, and probably northward.

This small flounder is brought in in large quantities by the sweep-nets off San Francisco. It is of little value as a food-fish.

Genus V.—EOPSETTA.

Eopsetta Jordan & Goss, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 135 (*jordani*).

TYPE: *Hippoglossoides jordani* Lockington.

This genus contains but a single species, a large flounder which is abundant on the coast of California. It is very close to the genus *Hippoglossoides*, and its separation as a distinct genus is perhaps hardly justified.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF EOPSETTA.

- a. Body broadly ovate; maxillary $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head; teeth in two series above, the inner series much smaller, the outer canine-like in front, gill membranes somewhat united; gill-rakers strong, $x + 15$; eyes large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, separated by a narrow, blunt, scaly ridge; scales small, firm, strongly ciliated, smooth on blind side; anal spine strong; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. 94, A. 72, Lat. l. 96. Vertebrae $11 + 32 = 43$. Color, olive-brown, nearly uniform..... JORDANI, 5.

5. EOPSETTA JORDANI.

(THE "CALIFORNIA SOLE.")

Hippoglossoides jordani Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 73 (San Francisco).

Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries, California, 1878-'79, 40 (San Francisco, Farallone Islands). Lockington, Scientific Press Supplement, April, 1879, 120. Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 454 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 67 (Monterey, Puget Sound, San Francisco). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 826. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 187.

Habitat.—Coast of California, Puget Sound to Monterey.

This is one of the commonest flat-fishes of the California coast, being found in abundance in shallow water from Monterey northward. It is a good food-fish, and large numbers are dried each year by the Chinese.

Genus VI.—HIPPOGLOSSOIDES.

Hippoglossoides Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 164 ("limanda" = *platessoides*).

Drepanopsetta Gill, Cat. Fish. East Coast N. Am., 1861, 50 (*platessoides*).

Pomatopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 217 ("dentata" = *platessoides*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes platessoides* Fabricius.

This genus, as here restricted, contains two closely related species, the one of the North Pacific, the other of the North Atlantic. Both are essentially Arctic species, inhabiting shallow waters in the regions where they are most abundant.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF HIPPOGLOSSOIDES.

- a. Teeth small, unequal, the anterior largest; gill-rakers short, $X+10$ in number; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space with an obtuse, prominent ridge, with usually about six series of scales; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 88 (80 to 93); A. 70 (64 to 75); Lat. l. 90; vertebrae $13+32=45$; color nearly plain brown.
- PLATESSOIDES, 6.
- aa. Teeth small, subequal; gill-rakers slender, $X+16$; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye large, 4 in head; interorbital space a narrow, knife-like ridge with usually a single series of scales; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 80 (77 to 84); A. 61 (59 to 64); Lat. l. 100; color brown, sometimes mottled with darker.....ELASSODON, 7.

6. HIPPOGLOSSOIDES PLATESSOIDES.

(THE SAND DAB.)

[Plate IV.]

Pleuronectes linguatula Müller, Zool. Dan. Prodromus, 45, 1776 (not of Linnaeus).*Pleuronectes platessoides* Fabricius, Fauna Grænlandica, 1780, 164 (Greenland), and of numerous copyists.*Citharus platessoides* Reinhardt, Kongl. Dansk. Vid. Selsk., 116, 1838.*Drepanopsetta platessoides* Gill, Cat. Fish. East Coast N. Am., 1861, 50 (name only).*Hippoglossoides platessoides* Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, p. 217. Collett, Norske Nord-Havs. Exped., 1880, 144 (Norway to Spitzbergen). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 471. Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 826. Stearns, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 125 (Labrador). Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquatic Anim., 1884, 197, pl. 55 (Wood's Holl and northward), and of recent American writers generally.*Pleuronectes limandooides* Bloch, Ausl. Fische, iii., 24 tab. 186, 1787 (Europe), and of various copyists.*Hippoglossoides limandooides* Günther, Cat. Fish., iv., 405, 1862. Day, Fishes Great Britain and Ireland, vol. ii, p. 9, pl. xv.*Hippoglossoides limanda* Gottsche, Wieg. Archiv, 1835, 168 (not *Pl. limanda* L.).*Pleuronectes limandanu*s Parnell, Edinburgh New Phil. Journ., 1835, 210.*Platesa dentata* Storer, Fish. Mass., 143, 1839. (Boston and Provincetown; not *Pl. dentatus* Linneus.) DeKay, N. Y. Fauna, Fish, p. 298, 1842. Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, p. 476.*Hippoglossoides dentatus* Günther, Cat. Fish., iv., 406, 1862. Günther, Voy. Challenger, Fishes, 1880, 3. (Station 49, south of Halifax.)*Pomatopsetta dentata* Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, p. 217.**Habitat.**—North Atlantic, south to Cape Cod, and the coasts of England and Scandinavia.The identity of the American and European representatives of this species (*platessoides* and *limandooides*) is now conceded by all writers. A little difference is recognized between Arctic and subarctic examples, the former having a somewhat greater number of fin-rays.Thus, Greenland specimens, according to Collett, have D. 88, A. 69, specimens from Finnmark have D. 92, A. 72; these representing the var. *platessoides*. Specimens from England (var. *limandooides*) have D. 80, A. 66, while those from intermediate localities present in general fin formulæ likewise intermediate, showing that no sharp division is possible.

This is a rather common food-fish of the deeper waters northward, on both sides of the ocean.

7. HIPPOGLOSSOIDES ELASSODON.

[Plate V.]

Hippoglossoides elassodon Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 278 (Seattle, Tacoma, Washington Territory). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 454 (Puget Sound) and elsewhere. Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 242 (Puget Sound, St. Paul, Humboldt Harbor, Shumagins, Iliulink, Unalashka, St. Michael's). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 826, 1882. Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 20 (Unalashka). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 188, pl. 52.

Habitat.—North Pacific, south to Puget Sound.

This is a rather abundant shore fish in Puget Sound, and it seems to be still more common northward, being, in Alaska, a food-fish of some importance.

Genus VII.—PSETTICHTHYS.

Psettichthys Girard, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 140 (*melanostictus*).

TYPE: *Psettichthys melanostictus* Girard.

This genus contains but a single species, found on the coast of California. It is nearly related to *Hippoglossoides*, but possesses the peculiar accessory dorsal branch to the lateral line, characteristic of so many of the Pacific coast flounders.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PSETTICHTHYS.

- a. Body elliptical; mouth rather small; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth large, sharp, uniserial; eyes very small, 5 in head, separated by a broad, flat, scaly interspace; gill-rakers slender, $X + 14$; scales very small, ctenoid, adherent; accessory lateral line long; first rays of dorsal exserted, the longest 3 in head; head 4; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 85, A. 60, Lat. l. 112; vertebrae $11+29=40$; color dark grayish brown, everywhere finely speckled with darker *MELANOSTICTUS*, 8.

8. PSETTICHTHYS MELANOSTICTUS.

[Plate VI.]

Psettichthys melanostictus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, p. 140 (San Francisco; Astoria, Oregon). Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Exped., Fishes, p. 154, 1859. Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 420, 1862 (copied). Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries Cal. 1878-79, p. 40 (San Francisco; Farallone Islands). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 76 (San Francisco). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 67 (Monterey; Puget Sound). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquatic Animals, 1884, 186, pl. 51 (Monterey to Wrangel, Alaska).

Hippoglossoides melanostictus, Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 828.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of North America, from Alaska south to Monterey.

This is one of the commoner flounders of the Pacific coast, being everywhere known by the name of "Sole." It lives near the shore, and reaches a length of about twenty inches.

In color this species is quite unlike the species of *Hippoglossoides*, but in most other respects the two groups are closely allied.

Genus VIII.—HIPPOGLOSSINA.

Hippoglossina Steindachner, Ichth. Beiträge, v. 13, 1876 (*macrops*).

TYPE: *Hippoglossina macrops* Steindachner.

This genus is intermediate between *Hippoglossoides* and *Paralichthys*, agreeing with the former in the insertion of the dorsal and in general appearance, and with the latter in the direction of the lateral line. Two species, the one from Japan, the other from Patagonia, have been lately referred to *Hippoglossina*. A fourth species, apparently still undescribed, is in the museum at Cambridge, from Japan. Some of these species are dextral, and perhaps all of them are normally so, or perhaps, as in the case of *Xystreurus liolepis*, all are indifferently dextral or sinistral.

ANALYSIS OF AMERICAN SPECIES OF HIPPOGLOSSINA.

- a. [Eye very large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body elliptical; dorsal beginning over middle of eye; pectoral of left side half head, much longer than maxillary, which is $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head and reaches middle of eye; interorbital space a narrow ridge; teeth very small, sharp, uniserial; scales of left side all strongly ctenoid, those of blind side ciliated only on posterior third of body; head $2\frac{1}{3}$; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{3}$, D. 66 or 67; A. 52; Lat. 1. 75 to 80; no anal spine. Color, brownish, with obscure darker blotches; body sinistral (in the only specimen known)] (Steindachner). MACROPS, 9.
- aa. [Eye small, $4\frac{1}{2}$ or more times in head; upper eye slightly before lower; snout $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space flat, with minute scales, half vertical diameter of eye; dorsal beginning above eye, of moderate height; mouth wide, maxillary extending beyond middle of orbit; lateral line with a semicircular curve; pectoral 2 in head; ventrals well developed, symmetrical. Grayish, minutely mottled with brown. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 72; A. 56.] (Günther) MICROPS, 10.

9. HIPPOGLOSSINA MACROPS.

Hippoglossina macrops Steindachner, Ichth. Beitr., v. 13, pl. iii, 1876 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Mexico, Mazatlan.

We know this species from the description and excellent figure published by Dr. Steindachner.

10. HIPPOGLOSSINA MICROPS.

Hippoglossina microps Günther, Voyage, H. M. S. Alert. Jan. 4, 1881 (Patagonia).

Habitat.—West coast of Patagonia.

This specimen is known only from Günther's short description of a specimen four inches in length.

Genus IX.—XYSTREURYS.

Xystreurus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 34 (*liolepis*).

TYPE: *Xystreurus liolepis* Jordan & Gilbert.

This genus is very close to *Hippoglossina*, differing chiefly in the sessile caudal fin and the smooth scales. In its peculiar gill-rakers it agrees with those of a Japanese species of *Hippoglossina* examined by us. The typical species, like some other Pacific coast flounders, is al-

most indifferently dextral or sinistral. The lately-described *Hippoglossina punctatissima* Steindachner, from Japan, seems to belong to *Xystreurus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF XYSTREURYS.

- a. Body broadly elliptical; mouth small; maxillary reaching pupil, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; eyes large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, separated by a very narrow, blunt, scaly ridge; teeth small, conical, blunt, uniserial, those below subequal, those above larger in front. Gill-rakers very short, broad, weak, $2+7$. Scales small, cycloid, with many accessory scales. Skin of shoulder girdle and gill arches with cup-shaped, tubercular scales. Dorsal inserted above pupil; no anal spine. Pectoral of eyed side falcate, varying much in length, usually much longer than head; anterior nostril of blind side with a short flap. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$, depth $1\frac{5}{8}$; D. 80; A. 62; Lat. 1.123; vertebræ $12+25=37$. Olive-brown, mottled with darker, sometimes with very distinct round black blotches or ocelli; pectoral of colored side barred..... *Liolepis*. 11.

11. XYSTREURYS LIOLEPIS.

Xystreurus liolepis Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 34 (Santa Barbara). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 454 (Santa Barbara; San Pedro). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 66 (Santa Barbara).

Paralichthys liolepis Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 825, 1882.

This species is rather common on the coast of California, from Point Concepcion southward. It is a very variable species, the coloration and the length of the pectoral fins having a wide range of variation.

Genus X.—PARALICHTHYS.

Paralichthys Girard, U. S. Pac. R. R. Surv., Fish., 1859, 146 (*maculosus* = *californicus*).

Pseudorhombus Bleeker, Comptes Rendus, Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, 1862, notice sur quelques genres de la famille des Pleuronectidae, 5 (*polyspilos*).

Uropsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 330 (*californicus* = *maculosus*).

Chænopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 218 (*ocellaris* = *dentatus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes maculosus* Girard = *Hippoglossus californicus* Ayres.

This genus, as now restricted, contains a considerable number of species, inhabiting both coasts of America and the eastern and southern coasts of Asia. As indicated by the reduced number of vertebræ, the species range further southward than do those of the type of *Hippoglossoides*.

The name *Pseudorhombus* has been often used for this genus by European writers, but the preferable name of *Paralichthys* has clear priority.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PARALICHTHYS.

- a. Gill-rakers in large number, about $9+20$, as long as the eye and very slender; body elongate, rather robust; head small, $3\frac{1}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; maxillary about as long as pectoral and about half length of head; depth of body $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{2}{3}$ in length; caudal peduncle very long; interorbital space flattish, its width less than vertical diameter of eye; scales moderate, somewhat ciliated, about 100 pores in the lateral line; arch of lateral line $3\frac{1}{2}$ in straight part; dorsal rays 67 to 71; anal rays 51 to 57; vertebræ $10+25=35$; color grayish brown, uniform, or mot-

- uled with blackish and pale, the head sometimes sprinkled with black dots; young brownish, with spots of light bluish. (Eyes and color normally sinistral, but reversed examples almost equally common). CALIFORNICUS, 12.
- aa.* Gill-rakers in moderate number ($6+13$ to $5+16$), rather long and slender.
- b.* Dorsal rays 70 to 75; anal rays 54 to 60.
- c.* Scales not very small, about 100 in the course of the lateral line; head small, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; interorbital space rather broad and flattish, $\frac{2}{3}$ diameter of eye; eyes small, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers rather short, $4+15$, the longest about $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; curve of lateral line high and short, 4 in straight part, its height $1\frac{1}{2}$ in its length; mouth moderate, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth rather few, the anterior canines large; color dark brown, more or less mottled and spotted with paler. BRASILIENSIS, 13.
- cc.* Scales very small, about 120 in the lateral line; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; eyes small, wide apart; gill-rakers $X+17$; curve of lateral line nearly 5 in straight part, barely twice as long as high; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color brownish-gray, thickly mottled with many larger and smaller spots, points and rings; side with three or four larger spots of irregular form and ocellated with paler. ADSPERSUS, 14.
- bb.* Dorsal rays, 85 to 93 in number; anal rays, 67 to 73; gill-rakers, $5+15$ or 16 in number, long and slender, the longest $\frac{2}{3}$ length of eye; body ovate, the depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head about $3\frac{1}{2}$; caudal peduncle long; maxillary about half head, reaching past posterior margin of eye; mouth large, oblique, the gape curved; canines large, conical, wide-set; interorbital area a rather flattish ridge, in the adult about equal to vertical diameter of eye, narrower in the young, forming a bony ridge; scales cycloid, each with numerous small, accessory scales; lateral line with about 95 pores, its arch 4 times in straight part; color brownish olive, always with numerous paler and darker spots of various sizes and with obscure ocelli; vertebrae $11+30=41$ DENTATUS, 15.
- aaa.* Gill-rakers few, shortish, wide set, the numbers $2+8$ to $3+10$.
- d.* Body ovate, more or less compressed, and opaque; the depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; no distinct, definitely-placed ocelli; scales cycloid.
- e.* Dorsal rays in large number (85 to 93, as in *P. dentatus*); anal rays 65 to 73; pores of the lateral line about 100; accessory scales few; gill-rakers $2+10$, lanceolate, dentate, wide-set, and much shorter than the eye; eyes small; interorbital space in adult broad, flattish, and scaly, as wide as length of eye; caudal peduncle rather long; depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head about $3\frac{1}{2}$; length of arch of lateral line nearly one-third that of straight part; color dusky olive, darker than in *P. dentatus*, and with very few darker mottlings or spots. LETHOSTIGMA, 16.
- cc.* Dorsal rays in moderate number (70 to 80); anal rays 54 to 61.
- f.* Scales very small, about 120 in the lateral line; depth of body about half length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; gill-rakers roughly toothed, $3+9$ in number; arch of lateral line $4\frac{1}{2}$ in straight portion; mouth very large, oblique, the broad maxillary more than half head, and reaching past eye; D. 78, A. 59; coloration brownish, the body and fins spotted with darker. SQUAMILENTUS, 17.
- ff.* Scales moderate, 90 to 100 pores in the lateral line.
- g.* Interorbital width about equal to length of eye; dorsal rays 75 to 81; anal rays 59 to 61; gill-rakers 2 or $3+9$ or 10; coloration grayish-brown, with numerous (more or less distinct) whitish blotches, which are rarely obsolete; vertebrae $10+27=37$ ALBICUTTA, 18.
- gg.* Interorbital width not half the length of the eye; dorsal rays 76; anal rays 60; form of *P. albicutta*; eye large ($4\frac{1}{2}$ in head); maxillary

$2\frac{1}{2}$ in head (as long as pectoral); teeth rather small; arch of lateral line a little longer than high, its length $5\frac{1}{10}$ in the straight part; gill-rakers 3+11, shorter and thicker than in *P. brasiliensis*, the longest about half eye; color brown, the body and fins irregularly blotched and with obscure ocelli; pectorals barred; eyes speckled.

PATAGONICUS, 19.

dd. Body oblong, strongly compressed, semi-translucent; scales weakly ciliated; about 93 pores in lateral line; curve of lateral line about $3\frac{1}{2}$ times in straight part; mouth large, oblique; maxillary narrow, its length $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; interorbital area a very narrow, bony, scaleless ridge; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; gill-rakers 2+8 in number, about half as long as eye; D. 77, A. 62; coloration light grayish, thickly mottled with darker; four large horizontally oblong, black ocelli, each surrounded by a pinkish area; one just behind middle of the body, below the dorsal; one opposite this, above anal; two similar smaller spots below last rays of dorsal and above last of anal; vertebrae, 11+30=41 OBLONGUS, 20.

12. PARALICHTHYS CALIFORNICUS.

(BASTARD HALIRUT; MONTEREY HALIBUT.)

Pleuronectes maculosus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 155 (young, San Diego). *Paralichthys maculosus* Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Exped., Fishes, p. 147, 1859 (not

Rhombus maculosus Cuvier, also a species of *Paralichthys*). Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 431, 1862 (copied). Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci., Phila., 1864, p. 197. Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries, California, 1878-'79, p. 41 (Monterey; Tomales Bay). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 79 (San Francisco). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 454. (San Francisco, Monterey Bay, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego.) Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 66 (Tomales Bay; Monterey; San Diego).

Jordan, Nat. His. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 182.

Hippoglossus californicus Ayres, Proc. Cal. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1859, p. 29, and 1860, fig. 10 (adult, San Francisco).

Pseudorhombus californicus Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 426, 1862 (copied).

Uropsetta californica Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 330. Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 198.

Paralichthys californicus Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A. 1882, 821.

Habitat.—Coast of California; Tomales Bay to San Diego..

This large flounder is one of the common food-fishes of the Pacific coast, where it takes the place occupied on the Atlantic side by *Paralichthys dentatus*. It reaches a length of three feet and a weight of sixty pounds. From its resemblance to the halibut, it usually goes by the name of bastard halibut. It is readily distinguished from the Atlantic members of the same genus by its fewer fin-rays and by its more numerous gill-rakers.

The specific name *californicus* must be used for this fish, the earlier name, *maculosus*, being preoccupied in the genus *Paralichthys*. As was first shown by Mr. Lockington, the small fish, called *Paralichthys maculosus*, is simply the young of the larger fish, then called *Uropsetta californica*. Unlike other species of the genus, *Paralichthys californicus* is almost as frequently dextral as sinistral.

13. PARALICHTHYS BRASILIENSIS.

- Hippoglossus brasiliensis* Ranzani, Nov. Spec. Pisc., 10, tab. iii, 1840 (Brazil).
Pseudorhombus brasiliensis Günther, Fishes Centr. Amer., 473, 1869 (Brazil, Guatemala).
Platessa orbignyana Valenciennes, D'Orbigny Voy. S. Amer. Mérid. Poiss., pt. 5, pl. 16, f. 1, 1847.
Rhombus aramaca Castelnau, Anim. nouv. ou rares, Poiss., 78, pl. 40, f. 3 (not of Cuvier).
Pseudorhombus vorax Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 429 ("South America").

Habitat.—South America, said to range northward to Guatemala. This species is known to us from numerous specimens from Rio Janeiro and from Maldonado, in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.

The locality "Guatemala" given by Günther seems to be somewhat doubtful, and the species may not occur in West Indian waters at all.

14. PARALICHTHYS ADSPERSUS.

- ? *Hippoglossus kingi* Jenyns, Voyage Beagle, Fishes, 1842, 128, pl. 26. (Valparaíso: from a drawing only.)
Pseudorhombus adspersus Steindachner, Ichthyol. Notizen, v, 1867, 9, Plate II. (Chinchas Islands.)
Paralichthys adspersus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 370. (Capo San Lucas.) Jordan and Gilbert, Bull. Fish. Com., 1882, pp. 108 and 111. (Mazatlán, Panama.) Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 133.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America. Cape San Lucas to Peru. Numerous specimens of this species were obtained by Professor Gilbert at Mazatlán and Panama. As all these have been destroyed by fire, we have taken our description from Callao specimens in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. The species is very close to *P. brasiliensis*, differing chiefly in the smaller scales. This may prove identical with the remarkable *H. kingi* of Jenyns, in which case it must stand as *Paralichthys kingi*.

15. PARALICHTHYS DENTATUS.

(THE SUMMER FLOUNDER.)

- Pleuronectes dentatus* Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., 1, 458, 1766, and of numerous copyists. Mitchill, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc. N. Y., p. 390, 1815 (New York).
Platessa dentata Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., p. 143, 1839.
Pseudorhombus dentatus Goode and Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 123.
Paralichthys dentatus Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 178. (Detailed account; includes *P. lethostigma*.) Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 134.
Pleuronectes melanogaster Mitchill, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc. N. Y., p. 390, 1815. (Doubled example.)
Platessa ocellaris DeKay, N. Y. Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 300, Pl. 47, fig. 152.
Pseudorhombus ocellaris Günther, iv, 430, 1862 (copied). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 370 (Beaufort).
Chænopsetta ocellaris Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci., 1864, 218.
Paralichthys ocellaris Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 617 (Charleston).
Paralichthys ophryas Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish N. A., p. 822, 1882 (Charleston).

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of United States from Cape Cod to Florida.

This species is the common flounder of the coasts of the Northern States, its range apparently not extending much south of Charleston. Of the species found in that region it is the most important from a commercial point of view. It reaches a length of about 3 feet and a weight of about 15 pounds.

It has been confounded by nearly all writers with the more southern species now called *lethostigma*, from which it is best distinguished by its much greater number of gill-rakers and by its mottled coloration. On account of this confusion it is impossible wholly to disentangle its synonymy from that of *P. lethostigma*.

So far as the proper nomenclature of the two is concerned, this confusion makes little difference. There is no doubt that this is the original *Pleuronectes dentatus* of Linnaeus, as the original Linnaean type is still preserved in London. This has been examined by Dr. Bean and its identity with the present species fully established.

It seems also certain that this is the *Platessa ocellaris* of DeKay, who properly distinguishes his *ocellaris* from his *oblonga*, the latter being *P. lethostigma*.

A little doubt must be attached to the *melanogaster* of Mitchell, very scantily described from a doubled (black-bellied) example of this species or of *P. lethostigma*. As the former species is much more common about New York than the latter it is probable that Mitchell's fish belonged to it. We have also received a doubled example from New York corresponding exactly to Mitchell's description. We may therefore regard the name *melanogaster* as a synonym of *dentatus*.

The differences in the gill-rakers of these species was first noticed by Jordan and Gilbert in 1883. These authors erroneously referred all these synonyms to the species with the few gill-rakers and described the present one as new under the name of *Paralichthys ophryas*. The discovery of the Linnaean type of *Pleuronectes dentatus* has rendered a reconsideration of this matter necessary, and it is evident that to the "*P. ophryas*" belong also the prior names of *dentatus*, *melanogaster*, and *ocellaris*.

The name *Platessa orbigniana* Valenciennes, applied to a South American example and doubtfully referred by Dr. Günther to his *Pseudorhombus dentatus*, belongs to *Paralichthys brasiliensis*.

16. PARALICHTHYS LETHOSTIGMA.

(THE SOUTHERN FLOUNDER.)

[Plate VII.]

Platessa oblonga DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, p. 299, pl. 48, fig. 156, 1842. (New York; not *Pleuronectes oblongus* Mitchell.) Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, p. 477. *Pseudorhombus oblongus* Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 426, 1862 (copied). *Pseudorhombus dentatus* Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 110. (St. John's River, St. Augustine.) Goode and Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 123 (Pensacola). *Chænopsetta dentata* Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1864, 218.

Paralichthys dentatus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 302. (Galveston, New Orleans, Pensacola.) Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 617. (Charleston.) Bean, Cat. Col. Fish, U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 45 (Galveston).

Paralichthys dentatus Jordan and Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 822.

Paralichthys lethostigma Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 237 (Jacksonville, Florida).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coast of United States, north to New York.

This species is the common large flounder of the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, ranging as far north as New York. It very closely resembles *Paralichthys dentatus*, with which it has been repeatedly confounded. It is, however, sharply distinguished by the character of the gill-rakers. It is also always darker in color, and almost uniform, while the *dentatus* is usually profusely spotted. Its only tenable name is the very recent one of *Paralichthys lethostigma*.

17. PARALICHTHYS SQUAMILENTUS.

Paralichthys squamilentus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 303 (Pensacola). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 823, 1882 (Pensacola, Charleston). Bean, Cat. Coll. Fish, U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 45 (Pensacola).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of United States.

This species is very close to *Paralichthys alboguttata*, from which it differs chiefly in the small scales. It seems to be rather rare. Besides the original types from Pensacola another referred to the same species is in the National Museum from Charleston.

18. PARALICHTHYS ALBIGUTTA.

Pseudorhombus dentatus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 370 (Beaufort). *Paralichthys alboguttata* Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 302 (Pensacola; Beaufort). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 823. Jordan and Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, p. 233 (Cedar Keys).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coast of the United States.

This species is common on the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts. It has the few gill-rakers of *Paralichthys lethostigma*, the mottled coloration of *Paralichthys dentatus*, while from both it is distinguished by its smaller number of dorsal and anal rays. In the number of its vertebræ it agrees with *P. lethostigma*. It seems to reach a smaller size than either of these species.

19. PARALICHTHYS PATAGONICUS.

Pseudorhombus dentatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 425, 1862 (Port Famine). *Paralichthys patagonicus* Jordan, sp. nov. (east coast of Patagonia).

This species is extremely close to *P. alboguttata*, from which it is separated only by characters of slight importance. The locality inhabited by it is, however, widely distant. The types of the species are in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. There are three specimens, the largest about 8 inches long, No. 11399, from the east coast of Patagonia.

20. PARALICHTHYS OBLONGUS.

(THE FOUR-SPOTTED FLOUNDER.)

[Plate VIII.]

Pleuronectes oblongus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., 1, 391, 1815 (New York).*Chænopsetta oblonga* Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, p. 218.*Paralichthys oblongus* Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 472 (Southern New England). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 824 (specimens from Wood's Holl, Mass.).*Platessa quadrocellata* Storer, Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., 1847, p. 242. Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., p. 397, pl. 31, fig. 3 (Provincetown).*Habitat*.—Coasts of New England and New York.

This species is rather common on the coast of Cape Cod and the neighboring islands, but it has been rarely noticed elsewhere. The limits of its range are not yet definitely known.

It is a very strongly marked species. Its translucency of coloration indicates that it lives in deeper water than the other species of the genus.

Genus XI.—ANCYLOPSETTA.

Ancylopsetta Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1864, 224 (*quadrocellata*).*Notosema* Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., XIX, 193, 1883 (*dilecta*).*TYPE*: *Ancylopsetta quadrocellata* Gill.This genus is also very close to *Paralichthys*, differing in the subsessile caudal fin, the short gill-rakers, the rough scales, and in the prolongation of the anterior rays of the dorsal fin. These characters are found in *quadrocellata* as well as in *dilecta*, the distinctions of the supposed genus, *Notosema*, being chiefly of degree. Besides the two species here mentioned, a third as yet undescribed, the types having been accidentally destroyed, was obtained by Professor Gilbert at Panama.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ANCYLOPSETTA.

a. Anterior (produced) rays of dorsal shorter than head; pectoral of eyed side about two-thirds length of head. Body oval, very deep. Depth of caudal peduncle half length of head; head 4 in length; depth, $1\frac{2}{3}$. Gill-rakers very short, 2+6 or 7. Mouth small; maxillary reaching middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth small, the canines scarcely differentiated; eyes moderate, separated by a very narrow, sharp, scaly ridge; scales of both sides ctenoid; ventral of eyed side produced, about half as long as head; no anal spine; color dark olive, with four large oblong ocellated blackish spots, the first above the arch of the lateral line, the three posterior forming an isosceles triangle, the hindmost being on the lateral line. D. 70; A. 55; Lat. I. 85—58 pores in straight part; vertebrae, 9+26=35.

QUADROCELLATA, 21.

aa. [Anterior (produced) rays of dorsal longer than the head, the longest half depth of body, pectoral of eyed side nearly as long as head; body elliptical; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length, depth 2; gill-rakers subtriangular, moderately numerous; mouth moderate, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth unequal, those in front much largest; eyes large, 3 in head, the interorbital space very narrow; scales highly ctenoid; ventral of eyed side produced, more than three times length of right ventral; color dark brown, speckled with darker, three large subcircular ocellated spots nearly as

large as eye, with white center, dark iris, narrow, dark margin, and a brown encircling outline, these arranged in an isosceles triangle, the apex on the lateral line, the others before it and distant from the lateral line a distance equal to their own diameter. D. 69, A. 56, Lat. 1, with 48 pores in straight part.] (Goode & Bean)..... DILECTA, 22.

21. ANCYLOPSETTA QUADROCELLATA.

Aneylopsetta quadrocellata Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1864, p. 224 (Pensacola).

(Not *Platesa quadrocellata* Storer).

Pseudorhombus quadrocellatus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, p. 370 (Beaufort).

Paralichthys ommatus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 616 (Charleston).
Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 824, 1882. Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, p. 234 (Cedar Keys).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States.

This species is not rare along the South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States. On referring the species to the genus *Paralichthys* it became necessary to change the specific name *quadrocellatus*, pre-occupied in the latter genus. We, however, now consider it best to retain *Ancylopsetta* as a group distinct from *Paralichthys*.

22. ANCYLOPSETTA DILECTA.

Notosema dilecta Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xix, 193, 1883 (Gulf Stream, off the coast of South Carolina).

Ancylopsetta dilecta Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 134.

Paralichthys stigmatias Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 182 (name only, by inadvertence for *dilectus*).

Habitat.—Gulf Stream.

This species is known from the original types obtained in the deep waters (75 fathoms) of the Gulf Stream, off the Carolina coast.

Genus XII.—PHRYNORHOMBUS.

Phrynorhombus Günther, Catal. Fishes Brit. Mus., iv, 414, 1862 (*unimaculatus*).

TYPE: *Rhombus unimaculatus* Risso = *Pleuronectes regius* Bonnaterre.

This genus is allied to *Zeugopterus*, from which it differs chiefly in the separation of the ventral and anal fins. It is, in our opinion, worthy of separation. But a single species is known. The peculiar flannel-like character of the scales is similar to that of *Monochirus hispidus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PHRYNORHOMBUS.

- a. First ray of dorsal produced in a filament, about one-third as long as head; first ray of pectoral sometimes filamentous; scales small, each with about four long spinules; eyes moderate, separated by a high, narrow scaly ridge; snout short, abruptly projecting; gill-rakers short, about $X + 10$; mouth curved, the maxillary not quite half head. Depth, 2 in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. 78 to 79, A. 67, Lat. 1. 70; vertebrae 10+25=35; color, dark gray, with dusty marblings and black spots, one at the end of the curve of the lateral line; a reddish ocellus edged with black on middle of tail; fins much blotched REGIUS, 23.

23. PHRYNORHOMBUS REGIUS.

(THE TOP-KNOT.)

La Petite Limandelle, Duhamel, "Traité sur la Pesche, iii, sect. 9, p. 270, pl. 6, f. 5." *Pleuronectes regius*, "la Calimande royale" Bonnaterre, Encyclopédie Méthodique, 1788 (after Duhamel).

Pleuronectes calimanda Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 1803 (after Duhamel).

Pleuronectes punctatus "Fleming, Werner, Mem., ii, 241" (not of Bloch.)

Rhombus unimaculatus Risso, Europe Méridionale, iii, 252, f. 35, 1826 (Nice).

Phrynorhombus unimaculatus Günther, iv, 414, 1862 (Dalmatia; Plymouth).

Scophthalmus unimaculatus Steindachner, Ichth. Bericht., vi, 1868, 49 (Barcelona).

Zeugopterus unimaculatus Day, Fish. Great Britain, ii, 17, pl. xcix (Belfast).

Rhombus uniocellatus Nardo, Prodr. Ichth. Adriat., 135, 1827.

Habitat.—Coasts of Southern Europe, north to England.

This small flounder reaches a length of 5 or 6 inches. Our specimens are from Venice. We adopt the earliest name, *regius*, for this species, as it seems to belong to this fish without doubt.

Genus XIII.—ZEUGOPTERUS.

Zeugopterus Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 178 (*hirtus*).

Scophthalmus Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico dei Pesci Europei, 1846, 49 (*hirtus*).
(Not of Rafinesque.)

Zeugopterus Steenstrup, Oefvers. Dansk. Vidensk. Selsk. Forhandl., 1865, 95–112.

TYPE: *Pleuronectes hirtus* Abilgaard = *Pleuronectes punctatus* Bloch.

This genus is distinguished from *Pleuronectes* both by the union of the ventral and anal fins, and by the perforation instead of emargination of the septum of the gill-cavity. This latter character was first noticed by Professor Steenstrup, who used it to define his genus *Zeugopterus*, which is equivalent to *Lepidorhombus*, *Zeugopterus*, and *Phrynorhombus* of the present paper. But one species is known, widely diffused in Northern Europe.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ZEUGOPTERUS.

a. Body ovate, covered with small but very rough shagreen-like scales; blind side smooth; caudal peduncle very short, the last rays of dorsal and anal inserted on the left side of it almost meeting across the base of the caudal fin; none of the dorsal rays exserted; lateral line indistinct; eyes large, separated by a very narrow, scaly ridge; snout very short; gill-rakers short, thickish; lips thick; maxillary half as long as head. Left ventral inserted at chin, fully confluent with anal; right ventral long. Brown, with round black spots, one behind the curve of the lateral line, and one behind this on the straight portion; one near upper edge of gill opening, and one above upper eye; an oblique band from lower eye to subopercle. Depth 2 in length; head 3; D. 93 to 99; A. 70 to 80. Vertebræ 12 + 25 = 37.

PUNCTATUS, 24.

24. ZEUGOPTERUS PUNCTATUS.

(THE BLACK FLUKE.)

Pleuronectes punctatus Bloch, Ausländische Fische, iii, 31, tafel 189, 1787. Gmelin, Syst. Natura, p. 1235, 1788. Bloch & Schneider, Systema Ichth., 1801, p. 155.
Zeugopterus punctatus Collett, Norges Fiske, 1875, 139. Day, Fishes Great Britain, vol. ii, p. 18, plate 6. *

Pleuronectes hirtus Abildgaard, Müller, Zoöl. Danica, 1788, III, 36, taf. 103.

Rhombus hirtus Yarrell, Brit. Fish., ed. 2, ii, 334. Günther, iv, 413, 1862, and of several authors.

Pleuronectes kitt Bloch & Schneider, Systema Ichthyologiae, 1801, 162.

Habitat.—Coasts of Northern Europe, south to France.

The specimens of this species which we have examined are from the North Sea.

Genus XIV.—LEPIDORHOMBUS.

Lepidorhombus Günther, Catal. Fishes, iv, 411, 1862 (*megastoma*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes megastoma* Donovan = *Pleuronectes whiff-iagonis* Walbaum.

This genus contains one or two European species, related to *Zeugopterus*, but in general appearance resembling the species of *Arnoglossus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LEPIDORHOMBUS.

- a. Dorsal rays, 85 to 87; anal rays, 67 to 69; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; interorbital space a very narrow scaly ridge; mouth very large, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; the anterior teeth hooked backwards, about 4 in head; eyes very large, the lower somewhat before the other; anterior rays of dorsal short, but considerably exserted; scales small, very deciduous. Lat. l. about 100. Vertebrae $11+30=41$. Color, yellowish brown, dorsal and anal with some dark blotches..... WHIFF-IAGONIS, 25.
- aa. Dorsal rays, 78 to 80; anal rays, 58 to 64; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; otherwise essentially as in the preceding, of which it is probably a variety..... NORVEGICUS, 26.

25. LEPIDORHOMBUS WHIFF-IAGONIS.

(THE WHIFF, MERRY SOLE, or SAIL FLUKE.)

Passer Cornubiensis, "Jago in Ray, Syn. Pisc., 163, f. 2," 1713.

Whiff Pennant, "British Zoology, iii, 238, 1776."

Pleuronectes whiff-iagonis Walbaum, Artedi Piscium, iii, 120, 1792 (after Pennant).

Pleuronectes megastoma Donovan, "Brit. Fish., iii, pl. 41, 1802," and of many authors.

Rhombus megastoma Günther, iv, 411, and of numerous authors.

Zeugopterus megastoma Collett, Norges Fiske, 138, 1875.

Arnoglossus megastoma Day, British Fishes, iv, 21.

Pleuronectes bosci Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 319, pl. vii, f. 33 (Nice).

Arnoglossus bosci Günther, iv, 416.

Pleuronectes pseudopolus "Pennant, British Zool., iii, 324, pl. 411, ed. of 1812."

Rhombus cardina Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. 2, 1828 (excl. syn. pars), based on the Whiff of Ray and la Petite Limandelle of Duhamel.

Zeugopterus velivolans (Richardson) "Yarrell, Brit. Fish., ed. 3, 1, 656," 1859.

Zeugopterus gottschae "Winther, Ichth. Dan. Mar., 38."

Habitat.—Coasts of Europe, most abundant northward.

This species is not uncommon in Northern Europe, where it is held in slight esteem as a food-fish, being thin, dry, and bony. It reaches a length of probably less than 2 feet.

Its names, "whiff," "merry sole," and "sail-fluke," are said to be derived from its habit of frequently swimming at the surface of the water "with its tail erected above the water, like a boat under sail."

Dr. Day has adopted Giglioli's determination of the identity of this species with the *Arnoglossus bosci*. The descriptions of the latter species certainly agree closely with our specimen of *Lepidorhombus*. We have therefore placed *bosci* in the synonymy of *Whiff-iagonis*. Vinci-guerra apparently regards *bosci* as specifically distinct from the others, although he places both in the genus *Arnoglossus*. The appropriate specific name of *megastoma* has been usually taken for this species, but the unmusical name of *whiff-iagonis* applied to it by Walbaum has ten years' priority. This name is given in honor of the "Reverend George Jago, of Loo."

Our specimen is from the coast of France.

26. LEPIDORHOMBUS NORVEGICUS.

Pleuronectes cardina Fries, Vet. Akad. Handl., 1838, 181 (not of Cuvier).

Rhombus norvegicus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 139 (after Fries). Collett, Norges Fiske, 1875, 139. (Christiania; Bergen; Bodö.)

Habitat.—South coast of Norway to the Arctic circle.

This species is known to us from descriptions only. According to Professor Collett, "it is distributed, although in scanty numbers, from the south coasts up to the polar circle." It would appear to be very close to the preceding species, differing somewhat in the numbers of the fin-rays.

Genus XV.—CITHARUS.

Pleuronectes Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico dei Pesci Europei, 1846 (*linguatula*, the only Linnaean species mentioned).

Citharus Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterdam, xiii. Pleuronect., 6, 1862 (*linguatula*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes linguatula* L.

This well-marked genus, an ally of *Lepidorhombus* and of *Arnoglossus* contains but a single species—a rather rare inhabitant of the Mediterranean.

ANALYSIS OF THE SPECIES OF CITHARUS.

- a. Body elongate, with soft flesh and large caducous scales. Mouth very large, oblique; the maxillary 2 in head; lower jaw projecting; some canine teeth, especially in front of upper jaw; two or three rather large teeth on vomer; eyes large, close together; left ventral on the abdominal ridge, a little in advance of right; its base scarcely lengthened; gill-rakers slender, of moderate length, X+9; no foramen in gill septum; dorsal beginning before the eye on right side; caudal pointed; fins all high, but fragile; head, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth, $2\frac{2}{3}$; D. about 65; anal, 45; lat. 1., 37; color, grayish, translucent..... **LINGUATULA**, 27.

27. CITHARUS LINGUATULA.

Pleuronectes linguatula Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, p. 270, 1758 (after Artedi), and of early authors.

Citharus linguatula Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 418, 1862. Steindachner, Ichthyol. Berichte 1868, Sechste Fortsetzung, p. 51 (Barcelona, Alicante, Cadiz), and of most recent authors.

Pleuronectes citharus Spinola, "Ann. Mus., x, 166," 1807.

Pleuronectes macrolepidotus Delaroche, "Ann. Mus., xiii, 353," 1809 (and of other European writers, probably not of Bloch).

Solea limanda Rafinesque, Indice, 1810, 14 (after Linnaeus).

Solea cithara Rafinesque, Indice, 1810, 52 (based on *Citharus* of Rondelet).

Pleuronectes solea var. *pataracchia*, "Naccari, Ichth. Adriat., 11."

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

This species is known to us from specimens in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, from Cette (Theodore Lyman), and from Cadiz (Dr. Steindachner). It does not seem to be very common anywhere.

Genus XVI.—PLEURONECTES.

Pleuronectes Artedi, Genera Piscium, 1738 (includes all flounders).

Rhombus Klein, Pisc. Missus, IV, 34, 1740 (*rhombus*; pre-Linnæan).

Pleuronectes (Artedi) Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 271 (includes all flounders then known).

Rhombus (Klein) Walbaum, Artedi Piscium, 1792 (*rhombus*; non-binomial).

Bothus Rafinesque, Caratteri di Alcuni Nuovi Generi, etc., 1810, 23 (*rhombo*=*rhombus*), etc.

Scophthalmus Rafinesque, Indice di Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 53 (*rhombus*; *maximus*).

Rhombus Cuvier, Règne Animal, 1817, and of most writers (not of Lacépède) (first subdivision of *Pleuronectes*).

Pleuronectes Fleming, British Animals, 1828, 196 (first restriction of *Pleuronectes*, in which the name *Pleuronectes* is retained; *maximus*).

Psetta Swainson, Nat. Hist. Classif. Anim., ii, 302, 1839 (*maximus*) (not *Psetta* Cuvier).

Pleuronectes DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 301 (*maximus*).

Psetta Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico dei Pesci Europei, 1846, 49 (*rhombus*; *maximus*).

Passer Valenciennes, Voyage de la Venus, 1855, 341 (substitute for *Rhombus*, preoccupied; type "le turbot;" not *Passer* Brisson, a genus of birds).

Lophopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 216 (*maculatus*).

Bothus Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 815, and in Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 577 (*rhombus*).

Psetta Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus. 1882, 577 (*maximus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes maximus* Linnaeus.

We here include in the genus *Pleuronectes* three species, the Turbot, the Brill, and the "Window-Pane." The Turbot and the Window-Pane are both evidently very closely related to the Brill, although in size and appearance they are quite unlike each other. The Turbot differs strikingly from the other two in a single character, the reduced or rudimentary condition of the scales. This character, however, shows a considerable range of variation in the same species, some turbots being distinctly scaly and others wholly naked, and it is apparently a character which the species has acquired comparatively recently. We have therefore regarded it as of subgeneric value only. We, however, place the two scaly species in a distinct subgenus, *Bothus*, and in the view of a genus taken by many recent authors, *Bothus* and *Pleuronectes* should be regarded as sufficiently distinct. If the non-binomial names of Klein, as reprinted or revived by Walbaum in 1792, be admitted,

Rhombus would take the place of *Bothus* as the name of this subgenus. Our reasons for considering the Turbot as the type of the genus *Pleuronectes* may be briefly stated:

In the earliest restriction of the Linnæan genus, *Pleuronectes*, in which the latter name is retained for one of the subdivisions, the Turbot has been retained as the type. We therefore find ourselves compelled to transfer the name *Pleuronectes* from the small-mouthed flounders to the present group.

The genus *Pleuronectes*, as it appears in the tenth edition of the *Systema Naturæ*, is intended to contain all flat-fishes, 18 of which are characterized and named.

Omitting foreign species, the following table shows the European species included by Linnæus, and the generic names which have since his time been specially based on each of these species:

Hippoglossus.....	<i>Hippoglossus</i> Cuvier, 1817.
Cynoglossus.....	<i>Glyptocephalus</i> Gottsche, 1836.
Platesſa.. <i>Platessa</i> Cuvier, 1817; <i>Pleuronectes</i> Swainson, 1839; <i>Pleuronectes</i> Bleeker, 1862.	
Flesus	<i>Flesus</i> Moreau, 1871.
Limanda.....	<i>Limanda</i> Gottsche, 1835.
Solea	<i>Solea</i> Quensel, 1806.
Linguatula.....	<i>Pleuronectes</i> Bonaparte, 1846; <i>Citharus</i> Bleeker, 1862;
	<i>Bothus</i> Rafinesque, 1810; <i>Scophthalmus</i> Rafinesque, 1810.
Rhombus.....	<i>Rhombus</i> Cuvier, 1817 (preoccupied).
Maximus	<i>Pleuronectes</i> Fleming, 1828; <i>Psetta</i> Swainson, 1839;
	<i>Passer</i> Valenciennes, 1855 (preoccupied).
Passer.....	(An abnormal specimen of <i>Flesus</i> .)

The first subdivision of the genus *Pleuronectes*, after the removal of the soles, seems to have been that of Cuvier. Cuvier subdivides the group into three subgenera, *Hippoglossus*, *Rhombus*, and *Platessa*, retaining the name *Pleuronectes* for the group as a whole, but for none of his subdivisions.

Fleming, next after him, makes use of these subdivisions, but rejecting the name of *Rhombus*, he distinctly adopts the generic name *Pleuronectes* for the "Turbot" group. His genera are, therefore, *Pleuronectes* the "Turbot," *Solea* the "Sole," *Platessa* the "Fluke," and *Hippoglossus* the "Halibut." *Pleuronectes maximus*, the "Common Turbot," is evidently intended as the type of *Pleuronectes*, as understood by him. This is, so far as we have ascertained, the first restriction of the name *Pleuronectes*, to any group of flounders, and if it be so the name *Pleuronectes* must go with the Turbot and its relatives. In that case it would take the place of the preoccupied name *Rhombus*, and of the prior but almost forgotten name of *Bothus*, unless we see fit to place the Turbot and the Brill in different genera, in which case *Bothus* should be used for the Brill.

The next restriction seems to be that of Swainson, in 1839, who indicates *Pl. platessa* as the type of *Pleuronectes*.

Next is the restriction made by DeKay, 1842, who again makes the Tur-

bot the type of *Pleuronectes* by adopting the then nearly obsolete name of *Pleuronectes* in place of *Rhombus*. In 1846 Bonaparte retained the name *Pleuronectes* for a group composed of *Citharus*, *Arnoglossus*, &c. The only Linnæan species mentioned by him, *linguatula*, may be regarded as his type.

In 1862 Bleeker, and following him Günther and nearly all modern authors, have regarded *Pleuronectes platessa* as the type of *Pleuronectes*.

The reason for this view lies apparently in the fact that Aristedi before Linnaeus had mentioned the species later called *platessa* first in his list of species of *Pleuronectes*. This reason is now regarded as an insufficient one, and the name *Pleuronectes* must retain the signification given it by the first author, who has properly restricted it. We must therefore follow Fleming* in regarding *Pleuronectes maximus* as the proper type of *Pleuronectes*.

ANALYSIS OF THE SPECIES OF PLEURONECTES.

- z. Scales wanting or rudimentary, the blind side nearly or quite naked ; eyed side covered with scattered bony tubercles or warts. Vertebræ, 31. (*Pleuronectes*.)
- b. Body broadly ovate, thick, and opaque, the depth about $1\frac{1}{2}$ in the length ; head 3 in length, its tubercles much smaller than those on the body ; interorbital space flattish, about as wide as eye ; anal spine inconspicuous ; none of the dorsal rays exserted ; gill-rakers rather strong, not as long as eye, about 5+13 in number ; lower pharyngeals small, narrow, each with a band of small pointed teeth. D, 62 to 69 ; A, 45 to 50 ; vertebrae $12+19=31$. Color, grayish or brownish, usually sprinkled with small dark spots..... **MAXIMUS**, 28.
- x. Scales obsolete..... var. *maximus*, 28, (a).
- x. Scales rudimentary..... var. *macroticus*, 28, (b).
- aa. Scales cycloid, imbricate, well developed on both sides of the body ; no bony tubercles. Vertebra 36. (*Bothus*.)
- c. Anterior rays of dorsal little exserted, the longest about 4 in head ; body elliptical ovate, nearly opaque ; scales very small ; blind side well scaled ; no bony tubercles ; interorbital space flattish, nearly as wide as eye ; gill-rakers moderate, 4+12 in number ; lower pharyngeals small, narrow, each with a band of pointed teeth. Head 3 in length ; depth $1\frac{5}{6}$. D. 72 to 83 ; A. 53 to 61 ; Lat. l. about 130. Vertebræ $12+24=36$. Grayish brown, with darker spots and mottlings..... **RHOMBUS**, 29.
- cc. Anterior rays of dorsal much exserted, free for more than half their length, their length nearly half head ; body broadly ovate, subtranslucent ; interorbital space flattish ; gill-rakers long and slender, about 8+22 ; blind side of body well scaled ; no bony tubercles ; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $1\frac{2}{3}$. D. 65 ; A. 52 ; Lat. l. about 120. Vertebræ $11+25=36$. Color light olive grayish, everywhere on the left side closely spotted with paler and with blackish, the dark spots of various sizes..... **MACULATUS**, 30.

*Fleming's definition is as follows:

"Gen. XLVI. PLEURONECTES, TURBOT.—Mouth entire ; teeth numerous, slender ; lateral line curved. Eyes on the left side." The species mentioned by him are:

P. maximus—Common Turbot.

P. rhombus—Brill.

P. megastoma—Whiff.

P. punctatus—Top-knot.

P. arnoglossus—Scald-fish.

28. PLEURONECTES MAXIMUS.

(THE TURBOT.)

[Plates IX and X.]

*a. Var. maximus.**Rhombus aculeatus* Rondelet, De Piscibus, and of early pre-Linnéan writers.*Pleuronectes maximus* Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 271, 1758, and ed. xii, 459 (and of early writers generally).*Scophthalmus maximus* Rafinesque, Indice, 14.*Rhombus maximus* Günther, iv, 407, 1862. Steindachner, Ichthyol. Berichte, vi, 1868, 48 (Lisbon, Vigo, Trieste, Constantinople, Odessa, Cadiz). Day, Fishes Great Britain and Ireland, vol. ii, p. 11, plate xvi.*Psetta maxima* Swainson, Nat. Hist. Fish., ii, 302, 1839.*Pleuronectes cyclops* "Donovan, British Fishes, iv, pl. 90," 1801.*Pleuronectes tuberculatus* Shaw, Gen'l Zool., iv, 312, 1803.*Rhombus aculeatus* Gottsche, Wieg. Archiv, 1835, 172.*b. Var. mæoticus.**Pleuronectes mæoticus* Pallas, Zoogr. Ross. As., iii, 419, 1811.*Rhombus mæoticus* Günther, iv, 409, 1862 (Erzeroum).*Rhombus stellosus* Bennett, "Proc. Zool. Soc., 1835, 92" (Erzeroum).*Rhombus torosus* Rathke, Fauna der Krym., 349, 1837 (Crimea).*Rhombus rhombitidis* Rathke, Fauna der Krym., 351, 1837 (Crimea).

Habitat.—All coasts of Europe except the extreme north. Variety *mæoticus* in the Black Sea and extending into the Mediterranean.

This species is the famous turbot of Europe, a broad, thick flounder, reaching a large size, its surface nearly scaleless and covered with rough warts. In spite of numerous statements to the contrary, the turbot has never been found in American waters. The fish so called by the Bahama and Key West fishermen, and which they often maintain is the turbot of Europe, is a trigger-fish, *Balistes carolinensis* Gmelin.

The turbot is an excellent food-fish, generally common on the coasts of Europe, and everywhere highly prized. It is the most valuable of the European flounders.

According to Dr. Steindachner, there is a complete gradation between the ordinary turbot in which the scales are obsolete and concealed, and the scaly turbot (var. *mæoticus*), which is more or less completely scaly, at least on the left side. Steindachner observes (Ichth. Berichte, ii, 48, 1868):

"Completely scaled on the sides of the body and the head (in part also on the blind side) is a very large individual from Lisbon and two smaller ones from Vigo, and from the Baltic Sea; for the greater part scaly on four examples from Trieste; only here and there on two examples from Odessa and Constantinople, and finally naked on numerous examples from Trieste, Cadiz, and the German Ocean."

The turbot reaches a weight of 40 to 50 pounds or more.

Rhombus torosus Rathke, described from the Crimea, is apparently a local variety of *Pl. maximus*, having the warts on the body elliptical

and the blind side wholly smooth, which is said not to be the case in var. *maoticus*. *Rhombus rhombitis* is much the same, but sparsely covered with conoid warts.

We find also references to *Rhombus hybridus* Malm (Goteborg, Mus. Arsskr., iii, 1881, 24). We have not seen the original description.

29. PLEURONECTES RHOMBUS.

(THE BRILL.)

Rhombus laevis Rondelet, De Piscibus, and of many early non-binomial writers.

Pleuronectes rhombus Linnaeus, Systema Naturae, ed. x, 271, 1758 (after Artedi), and of early writers generally.

Scophthalmus rhombus Rafinesque, Indice di Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 53.

Psetta rhombus Bonaparte, Pesc. Europ., 49.

Pleuronectes cristatus Lichtenstein, in Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 1801, 153 (European Ocean).

Bothus rumolo Rafinesque, Caratteri di Alcuni Nuovi Generi, &c., 1810, 23 (Sicily).

Rhombus vulgaris Cuvier, Règne Animal, 1817 (and of various authors).

Pleuronectes lioderma Nardo, Ichth. Adriat. No. 132 (Venice).

Rhombus barbatus Risso, Eur. Merid., iii, 251, 1826 (Nice).

Rhombus latus Gottsche, Wieg. Archiv, 1835, 175. Günther, iv, 410, 1862. Steindachner, Ichthyol. Berichte, vi, 1868, 48 (Bilbao, Corunna, Vigo, Lisbon, Cadiz, Malaga). Day, Fishes Great Britain, ii, 14, pl. xcvi, and of most recent authors.

Pleuronectes passer Gronow, Syst. ed. Gray, 1854, 90.

Rhombus linnai Malm, Bohusläns Fauna, 513 (Sweden).

Habitat.—All coasts of Europe, except the very extreme north.

The brill is a common food-fish of Europe, especially southwards. It is less esteemed than the turbot and reaches a very much smaller size. It rarely exceeds 8 or 10 pounds in weight.

30. PLEURONECTES MACULATUS.

(THE WINDOW-PANE.)

Pleuronectes maculatus Mitchell, Rept. in Part. Fish. N. Y., 1814, 9 (New York). De Kay, New York Fauna, Fishes, p. 301, tab. 47, fig. 151, 1842. Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, p. 479. Storer, Hist. Fish. Nat. Mass., 1867, 204 (Provincetown, Holmes' Hole).

Lophopsetta maculata Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Philad., 1862, 216, and 1864, p. 220. Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, p. 371 (Beaufort).

Bothus maculatus Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 815.

Pleuronectes aquosus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., 1, 389, pl. 2, fig. 3, 1815 (New York).

Rhombus aquosus Cuvier, Règne Animal. Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 411, 1862 (New York).

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of United States, from Cape Cod to South Carolina.

This small flounder much resembles the European Brill, but is smaller, thinner, and more translucent in body. Its weight rarely exceeds a pound or two, and its value as a food-fish is but slight; nevertheless, it is a near ally of the European Turbot, and in its technical character it very closely agrees with the latter species.

Genus XVII.—ARNOGLOSSUS.

Arnoglossus Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, 1862, 6 (*Arnoglossus laterna*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes arnoglossus* Bloch & Schneider= *Pleuronectes laterna* Walbaum.

This genus is composed of several species of small translucent flounders, found in the Mediterranean and the East Indies. They much resemble the species of *Citharichthys*, which they represent in the Old World fauna, the arch of the lateral line in *Arnoglossus* constituting the chief difference. The characters of the different European species have not been well set forth by authors, and possibly all the nominal species are reducible to two or three.

We find also in the Zoological Record a reference to *Arnoglossus soleiformis* Malm, Goteborg. Mus., Arsskr., iii, 1881, 24. We have not seen the original description of the fish briefly noticed in this paper, and know nothing of the species thus named. We have also provisionally placed in *Arnoglossus* two American species which we have not seen. These have been referred by their describers to other genera, *Hemirhombus* and *Citharichthys*; but as both have uniserial teeth and an arched lateral line, they would belong technically to *Arnoglossus* rather than to either of these groups. But the one (*fimbriatus*) differs from *Arnoglossus* in the small scales and tubercular gill-rakers, while the other has small, firm, strongly ctenoid scales, nothing being said of its gill-rakers. Possibly the two should constitute one or two additional genera between *Arnoglossus* and *Azeria*; but we do not wish to attempt to define these groups without having seen any of their species.

Bleeker has questioned the propriety of distinguishing *Arnoglossus* from *Platophrys*, as the broad interorbital characteristic of *Platophrys* is subject to much variation. As the two genera differ also in various other respects of form, dentition, squamation, &c., we think it best to keep them separate.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ARNOGLOSSUS.

- a. Mouth small, the maxillary reaching front of pupil, its length about 3 in head; scales rather large, thin, and caducous, weakly ctenoid; 40 to 60 in the lateral line; gill-rakers slender. (*Arnoglossus*)
- b. [Dorsal fin with four anterior rays produced. D. 95, A. 77, lat. 1.60. Maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space a very narrow, sharp ridge. Depth $2\frac{2}{3}$ in length. Color uniform grayish.] (Günther).....LOPHOTES, 31.
- bb. Dorsal fin with its second ray much produced, nearly as long as head; body rather deep, the depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; maxillary about reaching front of pupil, 3 in head; eye large, 4 in head; interorbital space not very narrow, with a median groove; D. 80 to 90 (83 in specimens examined), A. 60 to 67 (63 in our specimens); lat. 1. about 55. Curve of lateral line $3\frac{1}{2}$ in straight part; gill-rakers slender and weak, X+6. Vertebrae 10+28=38. Color dark brown, with darker markings; fins spottedGROHMANNI, 32.

- aa.* Mouth larger, the maxillary reaching middle of eye, its length $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head; none of the dorsal rays much produced; body more elongate, the depth $2\frac{3}{4}$ in length. Dorsal rays 86 to 90; anal rays 67 to 70; Lat. l. about 50.
c. [Maxillary nearly 3 in head; color grayish, dotted with brown.] CONSPERSUS, 33.
- cc.* Maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye large, 4 in head, the interorbital space very narrow, without median groove; curve of lateral line $3\frac{1}{4}$ in straight part; gill-rakers slender and weak, about $X+7$ in number; vertebrae $10+28=38$; color nearly uniform translucent grayish..... LATerna, 34.
- aaa.* Mouth very large, the maxillary about half length of head; scales small, 65 to 70 in the lateral line; species of uncertain position.
d. [Scales cycloid; mouth very large, the maxillary half length of head; teeth uniserial, those in front of jaws larger, those below largest; some of the teeth depressible; eye 5 in head, the interorbital ridge low, about one-fourth width of eye; gill-rakers tubercular, $X+9$; anterior nostril with a filament one-third length of snout; first ray of dorsal longer than second; lateral line with a slight arch, its length $3\frac{1}{2}$ in the straight portion, none of the dorsal rays produced; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth nearly 2; D. 80; A. 60; Lat. l. 70; color grayish-brown; the dorsal and anal fins each with two roundish dark blotches on their posterior half, each larger than the eye; a similar dark blotch on base of caudal; pectoral with a dark band at base, its outer half marked with a dark blotch, which is reticulated and mottled with lighter; the intervening part of the fin pearly white, with dark specks on the rays] (*Goode & Bean*)... FIMBRIATUS, 35.
- dd.* [Scales strongly ctenoid, firmly fixed; lateral line with the "curved portion bold and sharply defined"; eye large, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head, about eight times the diameter of the interorbital space, which is very narrow and scaleless; maxillary nearly half length of head; dorsal fin beginning on the blind side, before the eyes; pectoral about as long as head; caudal fin subsessile; ventral of eyed side enlarged in the male, its length $3\frac{1}{2}$ in body, about three times length of right ventral; head 4; depth $2\frac{1}{3}$; D. 93; A. 73; Lat. l. 66 (20+46); color light brownish-gray; a dark blotch as long as eye on anterior rays of anal; another paler at end of curve of lateral line; a few obscure dusky blotches elsewhere on body] (*Goode & Bean*)..... VENTRALIS, 36.

31. ARNOGLOSSUS LOPHOTES.

? *Bothus imperialis* Rafinesque, Caratteri, 1810, 23 (Palermo).

Arnoglossus lophotes Günther, iv, 417, 1862 (European, probably British).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea..

We do not know the species called *Arnoglossus lophotes*. In fact only the original types, dried skins from unknown locality, seem to be known as yet. Among the Mediterranean fishes, this one approaches most nearly to the description given by Rafinesque of his *Bothus imperialis*. The name *imperialis* should therefore perhaps be adopted in place of *lophotes*. According to Doderlein, the "Tappa or Linguata Impiriali" of the Sicilian fishermen is *Arnoglossus boscii*. This, according to Day, would be *Lepidorhombus whiffiagonis*, but Rafinesque's description cannot well be applied to the latter species. The following is a translation of Rafinesque's description :

"*Bothus imperialis*.—Almost three times longer than broad, dorsal fin beginning before the eyes; lateral line arched at the base; left side smooth olive, clouded with dusky; right side white; tail even. It is

called *Tappa Impiriali* or *Linguata Impiriali*. It is still better than the *Linguata* to eat. It is rarely taken, because it lives on the sandy or muddy bottoms of the sea, where it creeps under the sand or the mud. It is very distinct from the preceding (*B. tappa*) being larger; it has the following numbers of fin-rays, that is, dorsal nearly 100; anal nearly 80; ventrals 8; pectorals 12; caudal 15."

According to Day, Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond., 1882, 748, pl. 53, as quoted in the Zoological Record for 1882, this *Arnoglossus lophotes* is identical with *Arnoglossus grohmanni*. If so the latter species may have been the original *Arnoglossus imperialis*.

32. ARNOGLOSSUS GROHMANNI.

?*Bothus imperialis* Rafinesque, Caratteri di alcuni nuovi generi e specie, 1810, 23 (Palermo).

Pleuronectes grohmanni Bonaparte, Fauna Ital., Pesci, 1837.

Arnoglossus grohmanni Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 417, 1862. (Mediterranean.) Steindachner, Ichthyol. Bericht. Akad. Wissen. Wien, 1868, Sechste Fortsetzung, p. 50. (Barcelona, Cadiz, Malaga.)

This small flounder seems to be rather common in the Mediterranean. It reaches a larger size than *A. laterna*, and it is less transparent than the latter. The numerous specimens examined by us were collected by Dr. Jordan at Venice.

33. ARNOGLOSSUS CONSPERSUS.

Arnoglossus conspersus Canestrini, "Archiv Zool.", i, 10, tav. 1, f. 2, 1861." Günther, iv, 416 (copied). Steindachner, Ichthyol. Bericht. Akad. Wissen. Wien, 1868, Sechste Fortsetzung, p. 50 (Malaga). Vinciguerra, Risultate Ittiol. del Violante, 1883, 104 (Genoa).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We have not seen this species, and regard it as distinct from *Arnoglossus laterna*, chiefly because it is so considered by Dr. Steindachner. Dr. Vinciguerra gives a comparison of the two species, thinking them very doubtfully distinct, but without reaching a positive conclusion.

34. ARNOGLOSSUS LATERNA.

(THE SCALD-FISH.)

Arnoglossus (Perpeire) Rondelet, De Piscibus, xi, c. 14, 324, 1554.

Pleuronectes laterna Walbaum, Artedi Piscium, 204, 1792 (after Rondelet).

Arnoglossus laterna Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 415, 1862. (Cannes, Broxham, Plymouth.) Steindachner, Ichthyol. Bericht. Akad. Wissen. Wien, 1868, Sechste Fortsetzung, p. 50. (Barcelona, Alicante, Malaga.) Day, Brit. Fishes, vol. ii, p. 22, plate xcix, fig. 2.

Pleuronectes arnoglossus Bloch and Schneider, 1801, p. 157.

Pleuronectes diaphanus Shaw, Gen'l Zool., iv, 309, 1803.

Pleuronectes casurus Pennant, "Brit. Zool.", 1812, iii, 325, pl. 53."

Pleuronectes leotardi Risso, Ichth. Nice, 318, 1810.

? *Bothus tappa* Rafinesque, Caratteri, 1810, 23 (Palermo).

Solea arnoglossa Rafinesque, Indice, 1810, 52 (after Perpeire of Rondelet).

Rhombus nudus Risso, Eur. Mérid., iii, 251, 1826.

Pleuronectes pellucidus Nardo, Ichth. Adriat., 134, 1824.

Habitat.—Coasts of Southern Europe, north to England.

This small flounder reaches a length of about six inches. It is common in the Mediterranean and as far north as the English coast. Our specimens were collected by Dr. Jordan in Venice.

35. ARNOGLOSSUS (?) FIMBRIATUS.

Hemirhombus fimbriatus Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 591. (Deep waters of the Gulf of Mexico.)

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Gulf of Mexico.

We know this species from the original description only. As the authors of the species say that "the teeth are uniserial in both jaws" we are unable to see why they have placed it in *Hemirhombus*. So far as the description goes it agrees better with *Arnoglossus*, in which genus we have provisionally placed it. But the gill-rakers in *fimbriatus* are said to be tubercular, as in *Azevia*, while those of *Arnoglossus* are slender. The proper position of the species is therefore uncertain.

36. ARNOGLOSSUS (?) VENTRALIS.

Citharichthys ventralis Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 592. (Deep waters of Gulf of Mexico.)

Habitat.—Deep waters of Gulf of Mexico.

We know this species from the original description only. It is certainly not a *Citharichthys*. Among the known genera it seems to come nearest *Arnoglossus* or to *Lepidorhombus*, but the latter genus has a pedunculate caudal and teeth on the romer, while the former has cycloid or scarcely ctenoid deciduous scales.

Genus XVIII.—PLATOPHRYS.

Solea Rafinesque, Indice di Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 52 (*rhomboide*) (not of Quensel, 1806).

Platophrys Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Fishes, ii, 1839, 302 (*ocellatus*).

Peloria Cocco, Intorno ad Alcuni Pesci del mar di Messina, Giorn. del Gabin., 1844, pp. 21-30, Lettere di Messina (*heckeli*, a larval form of *P. podas*) (not *Pelorus* of Montfort, 1808).

? *Coccolus** (Bonaparte) Cocco, l. c. (*annectens*: larval form—probably of *P. podas*, with the right eye in transitus to the left side).

Bothus Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico, 1846, 49 (*podas*) (not of Rafinesque).

Rhomboidichthys Bleeker, Act. Soc. Sci. Indo-Nederl. Manad. & Makassar, 67 (*myriaster*), 1857-'8.

Platophrys Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., 1862, xiii *Pleuron*, 5 (*ocellatus*).

* "Parvus mole et pleuronectiformis, mediusr inter *Pleuronectidas* et *Bibroniinos* hic piscis videtur! Attamen dum illi oculos unilaterales habeant, iste vero bilaterales; in hoc novo genere oculi, alter a latere, altero in vertice vix ad appositum latus convenus positi sunt." (Bonaparte: quoted by Facciola, Su di Alcuni Rari Pleuronettidi.)

TYPE: *Rhombus ocellatus* Agassiz.

This well-marked genus is widely diffused in the warm seas. The sexual differences are greater than usual among flounders, and the different sexes have often been taken for different species. As a rule, in the males the pectoral fin of the left side is much prolonged, the interorbital area is much widened and very concave, and there are some tubercles about the snout and lower eye. The young fishes, as is usually the case, resemble the adult females. This genus has been generally called *Rhomboideichthys*, but the appropriate name, *Platophrys*, is earlier, as Bleeker has already noticed.

Lately Dr. Emery has shown that the larval flounder, known as *Peloria heckeli*, is in all probability the young of *Pleuronectes podas*.

The generic name *Coccolus*, based on forms slightly more mature than those called *Peloria*, probably belongs here also.

We have seen no larval forms so young as those which have been described as *Peloria heckeli*. We have, however, examined small transparent flounders, one with the eyes quite symmetrical, taken in the Gulf Stream, and another with the eyes on the left side, taken at Key West. Both these may be larvae of *Platophrys ocellatus*. The figures published by Emery seem to make it almost certain that the corresponding European forms belong to *P. podas*, although some doubt as to this is expressed by Facciola.

The species of *Platophrys* are widely distributed through the warm seas, no tropical waters being wholly without them. The group called *Engyprosopon* seems to be worthy of generic distinction from *Platophrys*, as its scales are large and rough ctenoid. All the known species of *Engyprosopon* are Asiatic.

All the species of *Platophrys* are extremely closely related and can be distinguished with difficulty. On the other hand the variations due to differences of age and sex are greater than in any other of our genera.

A species apparently belonging to *Platophrys* has been scantily described by Schneider (*Systema Ichthyologia*, 1801, 156) under the name of *Pleuronectes surinamensis*. His types were small, smooth individuals ("exempla satis parva et glabra"), with the fins scaly, the mouth small, the lateral line arched in front, and the dorsal rays 96, the anal rays 55. These may be the young of any of the West Indian species, possibly of *P. lunatus* or *ocellatus*.

The following analysis of the species of *Platophrys* will doubtless be found to be very unsatisfactory. There are certainly three species (*podas*, *maculifer*, and *lunatus*) which are known to be distinct in their adult state. The young forms of *maculifer* and *lunatus* are not well known, nor is it known how they differ from *ocellatus*, *spinosus*, and other species which presumably reach a smaller size. Only a thorough study of the species, in all stages of development, in their native waters can give us the characters by which the species can be really discriminated.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLATOPHYRYS.

- a. Anal rays—at least anteriorly—each with a spinule at base (these are formed by a slight widening of the tip of the interhaemal spines, each being covered by a little rough scale); front of dorsal with similar projections.
- b. Color brownish, more or less marked with spots of light blue and brownish, which are usually edged with darker, these usually arranged in rings; a large black blotch on the lateral line; mouth small, the maxillary 4 in head; interorbital width ranging with age and sex from $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout short, scarcely forming a re-entrant angle at its base; an angle opposite upper eye; depth $1\frac{1}{3}$ in length, D. 85 to 91, A. 70. PODAS, 37.
- bb. Color brown, covered with pale rounded spots; fins dotted with brown; a faint dark spot at first third of lateral line; snout with horny points; mouth small, the maxillary reaching front of eye. Eyes very wide apart, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; the interorbital space $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral fin short; curve of lateral line 5 in straight part. Depth $1\frac{1}{3}$ in length. D. about 74; anal about 57. Scales about 80. (Described from specimens 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, which have been partly dried before being placed in alcohol) SPINOSUS, 38.
- aa. Anal rays without spinules at their base.
- c. Anterior profile of head convex before the interorbital area, the very short snout scarcely forming a re-entrant angle at its base; form elliptic-ovate, the outlines more regular than in *Pl. lunatus*.
- d. Dorsal rays 85 to 95.
- e. Scales not very small, about 75 pores in the lateral line. (No blue markings, at least in young specimens.)
- f. Mouth small, the maxillary 3 in head; no spines about the snout; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; interorbital width 3 in head (in types); pectoral short; curve of lateral line 6 times in straight part; color dark brown, with numerous stellate white spots, the most distinct of them with darker edgings; these generally scattered over the body, but some of them on sides of body are gathered together in little rings. (Perhaps these spots are blue rather than white in life.) Fins mottled with dark brown, the pectoral finely barred. Head 4 in length; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 89, A. 65, scales 75. Specimens examined, 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches long. CONSTELLATUS, 39.
- ff. Mouth smaller, the maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space $2\frac{1}{4}$; teeth small, biserial above; arch of lateral line 2 in head. Head 4 in length; depth $1\frac{1}{3}$. D. 85 to 90. A. 64 to 67. Lat. I. 72 to 78. Color light grayish, tinged with reddish, with small round spots of darker gray, and with lighter rings inclosing spaces of the ground color; vertical fins, similarly colored, with a small black spot at base of each 9th or 10th ray; two black spots on lateral line; some other black spots on body and on caudal fin. Vertebræ, 37 OCELLATUS, 40.
- ee. Scales smaller, 90 to 95 pores in the lateral line. Mouth small, oblique, the maxillary $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth in both jaws in two irregular series; arch of lateral line $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Head 4; depth $1\frac{1}{3}$. D. 90 to 95. A. 70. Lat. I. 90 to 95. Color of adult reddish gray, the body everywhere covered with rings formed of round, sky-blue spots, which are not confluent and are not edged with black; besides these, very few detached spots or other blue markings; head with similar blue spots, but no rings; area inclosed in the blue rings not different from the ground color; caudal with blue spots, other fins with none; dorsal and anal mottled; a large, diffuse, dusky spot at front of straight part of lateral line, one better defined on middle of lateral line; a faint one farther back; pectorals grayish, with dark bars.... MACULIFER, 41.

dd. Dorsal rays, 105; anal rays, 80; pectoral short; interorbital space $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head; depth $1\frac{3}{4}$ in length; scales 91; body deep; color (specimen 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches long) grayish, much spotted and mottled with whitish; no blue (in young example). *ELLIPTICUS*, 42.

ee. Anterior profile of head strongly concave before interorbital area, the projecting snout leaving a marked re-entrant angle above it.

g. Mouth not very small; the maxillary 3 in head; head $3\frac{1}{3}$ in length; depth 2; D. 95; A. 70; lat. l. 90. Teeth small, in an irregular double series in each jaw; color dark olive, with many rings, curved spots, and small round dots of sky-blue edged with darker on body, these largest near middle of sides, where some are as large as the eye; three obscure dark blotches on straight part of lateral line; head and vertical fins with sharply defined blue spots, which are mostly round; spots on opercles, larger and curved; pectorals with, dark bars; vertebrae $9+30=39$.

LUNATUS, 43.

gg. Mouth small; the maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; head $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 86 to 88; A. 62 to 67; lat. l. 80; teeth very small, biserial above; color highly variegated with different shades of gray, the pale blotches rounded, very irregular in size and position; no blue spots; no black spots along lateral line; a large whitish cloud between the eyes.

LEOPARDINUS, 44.

37. PLATOPHRYS PODAS.

Rhomboides Rondelet, De Piscibus, 1554.

Pleuronectes podas Delaroche, "Ann. Mus., xiii, 354, tab. 24, fig. 14, 1809."

Rhomboideichthys podas Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 432, 1862. (Sicily.) Vinciguerra, Risioltati Ittiologici del Violante, 1883, 106. Emery, Contribuzioni all' Ittiologi, 405. (Interesting discussion of larval forms.)

Bothus podas Steindachner, Ichthyol. Bericht., 1868, Sechste Fortsetzung, p. 51. (Barcelona, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Santa Cruz de Teneriffe.)

Solea rhomboide Rafinesque, Indice, 1810, 52 (after Rondelet).

Bothus rhomboides Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico, 1836, 49.

Pleuronectes argus Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 317 (not of Gmelin).

Pleuronectes mancus Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 317 (not of Broussonet, whose species was from the Pacific Ocean = *Platophys mancus*).

Rhomboideichthys mancus Günther, iv, 432, and of many European writers.

Rhombus diaphanus Rafinesque, 1814 (larval form). Ricchiardi, "Soc. Toscana Sci. Nat., 1881."

Rhombus candidissimus Risso, Europe Méridionale, iii, 253, 1826 (larval form).

Rhombus gesneri Risso, Europe Mérid., 1826, iii, 254.

Rhombus heterophthalmus Bennett, "Proc. Comm. Zool. Soc., 1831, 147."

Rhombus madeirensis Lowe, "Proc. Zool. Soc., 1833, 143." (Madeira.)

Peloria heckeli Cocco, "Alcuni Pesci del mar di Messina," 1844, 20 (larval form).

? *Coccolus annectens* (Bonaparte) Cocco, l. c. (larva).

Rhombus serratus Valenciennes, "Webb & Berthelot, Iles Canar. Poiss., 82, pl. 18, fig. 1," 1835-'50.

Pleuronectes cuspidatus "Machado, Catalogo, 26" (fide Steindachner).

Habitat.—Mediterranean fauna.

This species is not rare in the Mediterranean and adjacent islands. The specimens examined by us are from Genoa and Fayal. The two species mentioned by numerous authors under the names of *podas* and *mancus* have been shown by Dr. Steindachner to be the two sexes of the same fish, while Dr. Emery has shown that the translucent fish,

Pelorria heckeli = *Rhombus candidissimus* = *Rhombus diaphanus*, is the larva of the same form, as is probably also the *Coccolus annectens* of Bonaparte.

38. PLATOPHRYS SPINOSUS.

Rhomboideichthys spinosus Poey, Synopsis, p. 409, 1868. Poey, Enum. Pis. Cub., p. 139, 1875.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

The original description of this species is a very scanty one. In all respects, unless it be the color, it agrees with the European *Pl. podas*.

We have found two small specimens sent by Professor Poey to the Museum of Comparative Zoology, which may be the types of this species. They are $4\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, and have been partly dried in the sun. A result of this has been to increase the prominence of the interhaemal spines. Whether these be the original types or not, the species is an extremely doubtful one. The eyes are farther apart in these specimens than in any of *P. ocellata* which we have examined. They agree in this respect with Agassiz's figure of *Rhombus ocellatus*.

39. PLATOPHRYS CONSTELLATUS.

Platophrys constellatus Jordan, sp. nov.

Habitat.—Galapagos Archipelago.

This species is described from three specimens, the largest $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, numbered 11146 on the register of the Museum of Comparative Zoology. They are from James Island, in the Galapagos. The species is closely related to *P. ocellatus* and others, but in color, at least, it is different, and its habitat is remote.

40. PLATOPHRYS OCELLATUS.

Rhombus ocellatus Agassiz, Spix Pise. Brasil., 1829.

Platophrys ocellatus Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Fishes, ii, 1839. (Name only.)

Rhomboideichthys ocellatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., 1862, iv. (Bahia, Cuba.)

Poey, Synopsis, 1868, 408. (Havana.)

Rhombus bahianus Castelnau, Anim. nouv. rares Amérique du Sud, 1855. (Bahia.)

Platophrys nebularis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 31, 143. (Key West.)

Habitat.—Tropical America; sandy shores from Long Island to Rio Janeiro.

We know this species from the numerous small specimens taken by Dr. Jordan at Key West, which have been described as *Platophrys nebularis*. A specimen similar to these has been taken by Dr. Bean on the south coast of Long Island.

This seems to be the same as the Cuban species called *Rhomboideichthys ocellatus* by Poey, and some of the specimens sent by Poey to the Museum of Comparative Zoology are apparently identical with the types of *nebularis*.

In the Museum of Comparative Zoology we have compared speci-

mens of the real *Platophrys ocellatus* (No. 11423, Rio Janeiro, Agassiz), with a representative specimen of *P. nebularis* (No. 26147, from the Tortugas, Florida), and are unable to find any differences.

We adopt, therefore, the name *Platophrys ocellatus* for all, and regard it as one of the widely-distributed flounders, like *Etropus crossotus* and *Citharichthys spilopterus*.

41. PLATOPHRYS MACULIFER.

? *Pleuronectes maculiferus* Poey, Mem., ii, p. 316, 1860. (Cienfuegos.)

? *Rhomboideichthys maculiferus* Poey, Synopsis, p. 408, 1868. Poey, Enum. Pis.Cub., p. 139, 1875.

Platophrys ellipticus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 51 (Havana) (not of Poey?).

We identify specimens taken by Dr. Jordan at Havana and by him described as *Platophrys ellipticus*, with this species simply because we cannot place them anywhere else. In the Museum of Comparative Zoology are other specimens similar to these, sent to Cambridge by Poey.

In several respects these species agree fairly with Poey's *ellipticus*, but that species is said to have 104 dorsal rays.

42. PLATOPHRYS ELLIPTICUS.

? *Pleuronectes ellipticus* Poey, Memorias, ii, 315, 1860. (Cuba.)

? *Rhomboideichthys ellipticus* Günther, iv, 434, 1862 (copied). Poey, Synopsis, 408, 1868. Poey, Enumeratio, 139, 1875.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

Poey describes his *Pl. ellipticus* as having 104 dorsal rays. In none of our other species does the number of these rays reach 100. Among the specimens sent by Poey to the museum at Cambridge is one, 4 $\frac{3}{4}$ inches long, which has 105 dorsal rays. We have therefore assumed that the species to which this specimen belongs is the real *ellipticus*, and that the one heretofore called *ellipticus* is Poey's *maculifer*. Both these assumptions are open to considerable doubt.

43. PLATOPHRYS LUNATUS.

Solea lunata et punctata (THE SOLE) Catesby, Nat. Hist. Carolina, tab. 27, 1725 (Bahamas).

Pleuronectes lunatus Linn., Syst. Nat., ed. x, 269, 1758 (based on Catesby), and of the various copyists.

Rhomboideichthys lunatus Günther, Cat. Fish., vol. iv, p. 433 (Jamaica). Poey, Synopsis, p. 408, 1868.

Rhomboideichthys lunulatus Poey, Enum. Pis. Cub., p. 138, 1875.

Platophrys lunatus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 51 (Havana).

Pleuronectes argus Bloch, Ichthyol., tab. 48, 1783.

? *Pleuronectes surinamensis* Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 1801, 156 (Surinam); and of the various copyists.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

This handsome and curiously colored species is not rare in the waters of the West Indies. The specimens examined by us are from Cuba, Sombrero, St. Thomas, and other localities in the West Indies. The

original figure of this species published by Catesby is a very good one and leaves no room for doubt as to the species intended. The figure of Bloch, called *Pleuronectes argus*, is also fairly accurate, and can refer to no other species.

This species reaches a length of some 18 inches, and is the largest in size of the American species of *Platophrys*. We have never seen any young examples which certainly belong to it, and till its development is traced some of the species known from small examples only must be doubtful.

44. PLATOPHRYS LEOPARDINUS.

Rhomboideichthys leopardinus Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 1862, 434 (locality unknown).

Platophrys leopardinus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, p. 260 (Guaymas).

Habitat.—Gulf of California.

This species is known only from the original type from unknown locality, and from a single specimen in the U. S. National Museum, taken by Mr. H. F. Emeric, at Guaymas.

Genus XIX.—SYACIUM.

Syacium Ranzani, Novis Speciebus Piscium, Diss. Sec., 1840, 20 (*micrurum*).

Hemirhombus Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, Pleuron, 4 (1862), (*guineensis*).

Aramaca Jordan & Goss, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 133 (*pætula*).

TYPE: *Syacium micrurum* Ranzani.

This genus contains a considerable number of species, mostly American and African, which form a transition from *Platophrys* to *Citharichthys*. They fall readily into two groups or subgenera, distinguished by the width of the interorbital space. As this width is dependent on age and as it is subject to various intergradations, the group *Aramaca* founded on it cannot be admitted as a distinct genus.

The name *Syacium*, based especially on *Syacium micrurum*, must take the place of *Hemirhombus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF SYACIUM.

- a. Snout before upper orbit with three conspicuous spinous processes; maxillary reaching beyond eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space scaly, concave, 2 in eye (in specimens of $3\frac{1}{2}$ inches); eye $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; spines on snout about 3 in eye; no produced fin rays; pectoral as long as head without snout; head blunt, higher than long, the profile straight; lateral line without arch; head 3; depth 2; D. 78, A. 62; scales 48; color grayish, with large distant black blotches on dorsal and anal; one or two on basal half of caudal and on end of caudal peduncle; pectoral with dark bands.] (Günther) CORNUTUM, 45.
- aa. Snout and orbits without spines or spinous processes.
 - b. Scales larger, 50 to 57 in the lateral line; interorbital space very broad, greater than the long diameter of the eye in the males, about equal to the vertical diameter in the females; accessory scales very numerous; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; its tip scaly; anterior teeth canine-like: gill-rakers short, strong, not one-third

- length of eye; first rays of dorsal nearly on median line, their tips much exserted; pectoral fin in males $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 times length of head; eye large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; head $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth $2\frac{2}{3}$; D. 81 to 88, A. 63 to 70; vertebræ $10+26=36$; color nearly plain brown, with darker dots or mottlings, no ring-like spots or ocelli; fins mottled; left pectoral barred; blind side sometimes wholly or partly dusky, especially in Northern specimens PAPILLOSUM, 46.
- bb.* Scales rather small, 60 to 70 in the lateral line.
- c.* Color dark brown, with many rings and spots of light gray and blackish, some of the dark rings with a black central spot; a diffuse dusky blotch on lateral line above pectoral, and one near base of caudal peduncle; fins with numerous inky spots and dark markings; blind side pale; scales small, firm, moderately ctenoid; eyes large, 4 in head, nearly even in front, the male with the interorbital space deeply concave; its width two-thirds the vertical depth of the eye; female with interorbital area much narrower, with a more or less perfect median groove; its width about equal to depth of pupil; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 in head; the outer teeth canine-like; gill-rakers very short and thick, about $X+7$ in number; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth, $2\frac{2}{3}$; D. 87 to 92, A. 54 to 68; scales 65 to 70 pores; vertebræ $9+24=33$; pectoral $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head in the female, reaching nearly to base of caudal in the male MICRURUM, 47.
- cc.* Color light brown, with grayish and light bluish dots, some darker areas and a few round brown spots ocellated with lighter; interorbital space with a vertical brown bar bordered by lighter; fins mottled and spotted; interorbital space in adult male broader than eye; insertion of dorsal on blind side of head; pectoral fins in males about 3 in body; head, 4 in length; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 92, A. 72, Lat. 1. 60; gill-rakers short and broad, $X+7$; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, its tip scaly LATIFRONS, 48.
- ccc.* Color light olive-brown, nearly uniform, the vertical fins with elongate dark spots; eyes $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, the lower slightly advanced; interorbital space very narrow, as broad as pupil (in both sexes ?), somewhat concave; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{1}{3}$; D. 86, A. 69, Lat. 1. 58 OVALE, 49.

45. SYACIUM CORNUTUM.

Rhomboideichthys cornutus Günther, Shore Fishes Challenger, 1880, 7, pl.

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil, in deep water.

This species is known from Günther's description and figure. In very young examples the conspicuous processes about the head are undeveloped.

46. SYACIUM PAPILLOSUM.

Aramaca Maregrave, Hist. Brasil., 1648, 181.

Pleuronectes papillosum Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., x, 271, 1758 (based on Maregrave), and of the earlier copyists.

Aramaca papillosa Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 602 (synonymy confused with *S. micrurum*).

? *Pleuronectes macrolepidotus* Bloch, Ausländische Fische, vi, 25, tab. 190, 1757 (and of some copyists) (apparently based on Maregrave).

Pleuronectes aramaca Donndorf, Beyträge zur xiii Ausgabe des Linnaeischen Natur-systems, 1798, 386 (after Maregrave).

Rhombus aramaca Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1827 (after Maregrave).

Citharichthys aramaca Jordan and Gilbert, Synopsis Fish., N.A., 1882, 816. (Pensacola.)

Rhombus soleiformis Agassiz, Spix Pisc. Brasil., 86, tab. 47, 1829. (Atlantic Ocean.)

Hemirhombus soleiformis Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 423, 1862. (Copied.)

Aramaca soleiformis Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886.

Hippoglossus intermedius Ranzani, Novis Speciebus Piscium Dissertatio Secundo, 1840, 14, pl. 4. (Brazil.)

Hemirhombus paetus Beau MSS, Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 304. (Pensacola.) Goode and Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 414. (Pensacola.) Bean, Cat. Col. Fish U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 45. (Pensacola.)

Citharichthys paetus Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 964, 1882, addenda. Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, p. 38. (Pensacola.)

Habitat.—West Indian fauna. Charleston to Rio Janeiro.

Of the species found in the deep waters about Pensacola and called by Dr. Bean *Hemirhombus paetus* we have numerous specimens. Lately we have received from Mr. Charles C. Leslie, of Charleston, a specimen which shows its presence also in Carolina waters. It has not yet been recorded from Cuba, but in the Museum of Comparative Zoology is a specimen (26104) taken by Mr. Samuel Garman at Kingston, Saint Vincent. But its range extends much farther to the southward, for among the collections made by Professor Agassiz at Rio Janeiro there are many specimens (11375, 4666), the largest about a foot long. These seem to be completely identical with Florida examples, differing only in having the blind side pale, it being usually partly blackish in northern examples.

These Brazilian specimens agree very closely with the figure of *Rhombus soleiformis*, except that Agassiz has represented that species as having a dusky blotch at the shoulder. No such marking is apparent in any of our specimens. The coloration and the breadth of the interorbital both render it unlikely that Agassiz's *soleiformis* could have been *micrurum*.

The *Aramaca* of Maregrave, which is the sole basis of *Pleuronectes papillosus*, *Pleuronectes macrolepidotus*, and *Rhombus aramaca*, cannot well be any known species other than the present one.

According to Maregrave's rude figure and his description, this species has the form of a sole, the eyes wide apart, the left pectoral produced, the mouth very large, the body oblong, and the coloration stone-like (sand-color) on the left side and white on the eyed side. *Micrurum* is not colored in that way, and its eyes are not noticeably far apart.

We therefore adopt for this species the oldest name of *Syacium papillosum*.

The species is common in the deep waters of the Gulf of Mexico, and reaches a length of more than a foot.

47. SYACIUM MICRURUM.

Syacium micrurum Ranzani, Nov. Spec. Pisc. Diss. See., 1840, 20, pl. 5. (Brazil.)

Hippoglossus ocellatus Poey, Memorias, ii, 314, 1860. (Cuba.)

Hemirhombus ocellatus Poey, Synopsis, 407, 1868. Poey, Enumeratio, 138, 1875.

Citharichthys ocellatus Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 964, 1882. (Key West.)

Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 143. (Key West.)

Hemirhombus aramaca Günther, iv, 42, 1862. (Cuba; Jamaica.) (Not *Rhombus aramaca* Cuvier.)

Citharichthys athalion Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 52. (Havana.)

Hemirhombus athalion Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 602.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna. Key West to Rio Janeiro.

We have found in the Museum of Comparative Zoology specimens purporting to be the types of *Hemirhombus ocellatus* Poey (No. 11144; Poey's number, 88). These are female specimens, and they differ from the types of *Hemirhombus athalion*, also from Cuba, only in their greater size.

Numerous specimens (11373) from Rio Janeiro belong to the same species. Among these are males, which have the interorbital space much broader than in the types of *ocellatus* and *athalion*. Besides these specimens, we have examined others from Hayti, Cuba, and Key West, and there can be no reasonable doubt of their identity, and that all are identical with Günther's *Hemirhombus aramaca*.

This fish is described and fairly well figured by Ranzani under the name of *Syacium micrurum*. It is the type of his genus *Syacium*, a generic name which, strangely enough, has received no notice from subsequent authors until the present time.

48. SYACIUM LATIFRONS.

Citharichthys latifrons Jordan and Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Comm., 1881, 334. (Panama.)

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America. Panama.

This species is known only from the original types, taken by Professor Gilbert at Panama. The several variations in this species have not been studied.

49. SYACIUM OVALE.

Hemirhombus ovalis Günther, Proc. Zool. Soc., 1864, p. 154. Günther, Fish. Central America, p. 472, 1869, plate lxxx, fig. 1. (Panama.) Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, p. 108–111. (Mazatlan; Panama.)

Citharichthys ovalis Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885; 391. (Mazatlan; Panama.)

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America: Mazatlan to Panama.

This well-marked species has been well figured by Dr. Günther, from whose account our analysis has been taken. Numerous specimens have been collected at Mazatlan and Panama by Dr. Gilbert. The sexual changes in this species have not been reported.

Genus XX.—AZEVIA.

Azevia Jordan (genus novum). (*Panamensis*.)

TYPE: *Citharichthys panamensis* Steindachner.

This genus is proposed to include a single species hitherto referred to *Citharichthys*, but distinguished by its tubercular gill-rakers, as also by its small, firm scales, and other characters of minor importance.

A second species of this genus was obtained by Professor Gilbert at Mazatlan, and at first recorded by us under the name of *Citharichthys panamensis*. The specimens have, however, all been destroyed by fire.

The name *Azevia* is a Portuguese name for the sole, used at Lisbon, according to Brito-Capello. It probably corresponds to the Cuban name *Acedia*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF AZEVIA.

- a. Scales quite small, about 75 in the lateral line, ctenoid, and adherent. Body rather elongate. Mouth large, the maxillary about half length of head, the upper jaw somewhat hooked over the lower; about three front teeth in upper jaw, enlarged and hook-shaped; canines strong. Anterior profile gently and evenly convex. Eyes large. Pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Head 4 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. 95 or 96. A. 76 to 78. Scales 73 to 78. Vertebrae 33. Gill-rakers tubercle-like, broader than high. Color brownish, sprinkled with dark dots, and with some whitish rings; large vaguely-defined oval spots on head and body; dorsal with five or six, anal with three dark spots..... PANAMENSIS, 50.

50. AZEVIA PANAMENSIS.

Citharichthys panamensis Steindachner, Ichth. Beitr., iii, 62, 1875. (Panama.) Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 108 and 111. (Panama.) Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, p. 112. (Punta Arenas.)

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Central America.

Our description of this species is taken from the specimens from Panama in the museum at Cambridge, a part of the series of Dr. Steindachner's original types. The species is apparently not uncommon on the west coast of Central America.

Genus XXI.—CITHARICHTHYS.

Citharichthys Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, *Pleuron*, 6, 1862.
(*Cayennensis*=*Spilopterus*.)

Orthopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 330. (*Sordidus*.)

Metoponops Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 198. (*Cooperi*=*Sordidus*.)

TYPE: *Citharichthys cayennensis* Bleeker=*Citharichthys spilopterus* Günther.

This genus includes small flounders of weak organization, especially characteristic of the sandy shores of tropical America. The subgenus *Orthopsetta* includes species of more northern range and somewhat different in form, and especially noteworthy as having an increased number of vertebrae.

We are not certain that *Citharichthys* has priority over *Orthopsetta*, the two having the same ostensible date.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF CITHARICHTHYS.

- a. Vertebrae about 40; interorbital ridge sharply elevated; the head not closely compressed; eyes large. (*Orthopsetta* Gill.)

- b. Dorsal rays 95; anal rays 77; lateral line 65 to 70; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; eyes large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, the interocular space scaly, concave, 4 in eye; a sharp elevated ridge bounding the lower eye; mouth not large; the maxillary 3 in head; teeth sharp, subequal anteriorly, smaller behind; lower pharyngeals narrow, each with a row of slender teeth; gill-rakers slender, close-set, $7+14$; scales large, thin, deciduous, slightly ciliate; numerous accessory scales present; pectorals long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; flesh soft. Color dull olive-brownish, the males with spots and blotches of dull orange, the dorsal and anal blackish, similarly mottled with dull orange; females paler, nearly plain. Vertebrae, $11+29=40$ SORDIDUS, 51.

- bb.* Dorsal rays 85 to 90; anal 68 to 72; lat. l. 55 to 60; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; eyes large, separated by a sharp, scaleless ridge; maxillary $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; teeth slender, rather long; gill-rakers short, rather slender; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color olivaceous, the scales edged with darker; fins dusky; a small ink-like spot on the middle of each seventh to tenth ray of each of the vertical fins. *STIGMÆUS*, 52.
- aa.* Vertebrae 33 to 36; interorbital ridge low and narrow, the head closely compressed (*Citharichthys*).
- c.* Eyes large, 3 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ times in the head.
- d.* [Head large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; pectoral of left side elongate, one-third longer than head; maxillary $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; "lateral line slightly curved over the pectoral"; scales thin, deciduous, cycloid; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, five times interorbital space, which is a rather prominent narrow sharp ridge; a strong spine on the snout over the upper lip, above this another shorter spine; caudal fin subsessile; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 91; A. 73; Lat. l. 48. Color grayish-brown.] (Goode & Bean) *DINOCEROS*, 53.
- dd.* Head smaller, about 4 in length.
- e.* Body comparatively elongate, the depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; mouth very small; the maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth very small, the anterior scarcely enlarged; eyes large, 4 in head, separated by a very narrow, sharp scaleless ridge, one-sixth diameter of the eye; snout with a small blunt spine; rays of vertical fins all exserted; left pectoral twice length of right. Head, 4 in length; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 83; A. 67; Lat. l. 40. Color light brown *ARCTIFRONS*, 54.
- ee.* Body comparatively broad, the depth about half the length; mouth larger.
- f.* [Snout with a strong sharp spine on eyed side, above upper lip. Eyes large, 3 in head; greatest depth of body over the pectorals; interorbital space with a wide ridge, about half diameter of eye; teeth minute, close-set, stronger on blind side; body extremely thin; D. 73 to 75, A. 60, Lat. l. 40. Ashy gray, with dark lateral line. Deep-water species with loose scales.] (Goode) *UNICORNIS*, 55.
- ff.* Snout without distinct spine. Eyes moderate, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; greatest depth of body under middle of dorsal; interorbital space a narrow, scaly ridge with a slight median groove; maxillary $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; teeth small, those in front slightly enlarged; body not very thin; gill-rakers moderate, 6+13.
- g.* Dorsal rays 80; anal 56; scales large, cycloid; no accessory scales; head 4 in length; depth 2; D. 80, A. 56, Lat. l. 41. Vertebrae 9+25=34. Eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color light olive-brown, with some 20 dark brown spots, the largest about as large as eye; four of these spots arranged at equal intervals along the lateral line, the second being most prominent; dorsal and anal with round dark spots, one on the middle of each sixth to seventh ray, besides smaller, irregular spots and mottlings; caudal spotted; two brown spots, one above the other, at base of caudal; shallow-water species. *MAGROPS*, 56.
- gg.* Dorsal rays 68; anal 52; scales smaller, the lateral line with about 53 pores; outline regularly oval, without angle; eyes moderate, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, close together, the orbital ridges coalescent, the lower larger. Teeth small, uniserial; maxillary $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; gill-rakers short and very slender, X+12. Color dark brown, with whitish blotches, the fins mottled *UHLERI*, 57.

cc. Eyes quite small, 5 to 6 in head; snout short, forming an angle with the profile; mouth moderate, oblique, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth small, the anterior somewhat enlarged.

h. Scales not very large, 45 to 48 in the lateralline; interorbital area a low narrow ridge which is divided only anteriorly (in Atlantic specimens, usually grooved for its whole length in Pacific coast examples); gill-rakers short and strong, X + 13; pectorals about half head; no distinct spine on snout; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 75 to 80; A. 58 to 61; vertebrae, 34; color olive-brownish, somewhat translucent, with darker dots and blotches; a series of distant obscure blotches along bases of dorsal and anal *SPILOPTERUS*, 58.

hh. Scales large, 40 to 42 in the lateral line; interorbital area $\frac{2}{3}$ diameter of eye, which is 5 in head; gill-rakers short and slender, about equal to pupil; teeth rather smaller than in *C. spilopterus*; maxillary $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; head $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 77 to 82; A. 59' to 61; color light gray, everywhere soiled and freckled, peppered with black specks; pectoral fin much mottled, the caudal less so.

SUMICHRASTI, 59.

51. CITHARICHTHYS SORDIDUS.

Psettichthys sordidus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., vii, 1854, 142. Girard, Proc. U. S. Pacif. R. R. Exped.; Fishes, 1859, 155. (San Francisco; Tomales Bay.)

Orthopsetta sordida Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 330.

Citharichthys sordidus Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries of California, 1878-'79, 42. Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus. 1879, 83 (San Francisco). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 67. Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., p. 817, 1882. Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 353 (Johnston Strait, Safety Cove, British Columbia.)

Metoponops cooperi Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 198 (Santa Barbara).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of North America, in water of moderate depth; British Columbia to Lower California.

This small flounder is one of the commonest species on the Pacific coast, being found in water of ten fathoms or more depth, in all localities from the Mexican boundary to British Columbia. It rarely exceeds two pounds in weight. In its deciduous scales and soft flesh it much resembles *Lyopsetta exilis* and *Atheresthes stomias*, two species of which are often taken in company with it. Of all the species allied to *Citharichthys*, this one has the most extended range to the northward.

52. CITHARICHTHYS STIGMÆUS.

Citharichthys stigmaeus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 410, 411 (Santa Barbara). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 965.

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California.

The original type of this species is a young example, taken near Santa Barbara by Capt. Andrea Lareo. In the Museum of Comparative Zoology are other specimens collected by Mr. Cary at San Francisco. These have 72 anal rays, while the original type had but 68. In this and other ways they approach *C. sordidus*. Were it not that some of

these are full of spawn at a length of five inches, we should regard them without much hesitation as the young of *C. sordidus*. As it is, it is not unlikely that *C. stigmaeus* will prove to be simply the young of the latter species.

53. CITHARICHTHYS DINOCEROS.

Citharichthys dinoceros Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xxviii, 1886, 156 (off Martinique, St. Lucie, and Barbadoes).

Habitat.—Deep waters of Gulf of Mexico.

This species is known to us from the original description only.

54. CITHARICHTHYS ARCTIFRONS.

Citharichthys arctifrons Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 341, 472 (Gulf Stream off Southern New England coast). Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoology, xix, p. 194 (stations 313, 314, 311, and 336). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 818, 1882.

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Gulf Stream.

This species is known to us from a small specimen obtained in the Gulf Stream southeast of Martha's Vineyard, and from the descriptions published by Goode & Bean.

55. CITHARICHTHYS UNICORNIS.

Citharichthys unicornis Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 342 (Gulf Stream southeast of New England). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 818, 1882.

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Gulf Stream.

This species is known to us from descriptions only.

56. CITHARICHTHYS MACROPS.

Citharichthys macrops Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, p. 539 (Pensacola). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 29 (Beaufort, N. C.).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States.

This species is known to us from several specimens dredged in the harbor of Beaufort, N. C., by Prof. Oliver P. Jenkins.

57. CITHARICHTHYS UHLERI.

Citharichthys uhleri Jordan, sp. nov.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

This species is based on a single specimen in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. It is 4½ inches in length, and was brought from Hayti by Mr. P. R. Uhler, the well-known entomologist, for whom we have named the species.

The species is close to *Citharichthys macrops*, but its fin-rays and scales are considerably more numerous than in the latter.

58. CITHARICHTHYS SPILOPTERUS.

Citharichthys spilopterus Günther, iv, 1862, 421 (New Orleans, San Domingo, Jamaica). Günther, Fish. Central America, p. 471, 1869, pl. lxxx, fig. 2 (Chiapam). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 382 (Panama). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 618 (Charleston). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, p. 630 (Panama). Jordan and Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, p. 108-111 (Mazatlan and Panama). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 817. Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus. 1886, 53 (Havana).

Citharichthys cayennensis Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, 1862, 6 (Cayenne) (name only).

Citharichthys guatemalensis Bleeker, Neder. Tijdschr. Dierk., 1864, 73 (Guatemala). Günther, Fish. Central America, 472, 1869 (copied).

Hemirhombus fuscus Poey, Synopsis, 406, 1868. Poey, Enumeratio, 1875, 138.

Habitat.—Both coasts of tropical America, north to New Jersey and Mazatlan.

This little flounder is almost everywhere abundant on the sandy shores of tropical America, in shallow water. Careful comparison of specimens from South Carolina, Brazil, Mazatlan, and Panama shows no tangible difference, and we are compelled to regard all as forming a single species.

It rarely exceeds 5 or 6 inches in length. It usually comes into the markets mixed with other shore-fishes and it nowhere receives any notice as a food-fish.

This species is common in the markets of Havana, and it is evidently the original of Poey's *Hemirhombus fuscus*, although in Poey's description there seems to be some confusion, because the teeth are said to be biserial above, and 60 scales are counted in the lateral line.

A specimen from Poey in the museum at Cambridge is labeled "*Hemirhombus fuscus* type." Collector's number, 87. This belongs to *C. spilopterus*, and it has 48 scales in the lateral line.

Bleeker's *Citharichthys guatemalensis* agrees in all respects with *Citharichthys spilopterus*. We are unable to find any description of *Citharichthys cayennensis*, if, indeed, the species has ever been described.

Specimens of *Citharichthys spilopterus* are in the museum at Cambridge from Panama, Cuba, Pará, Sambaia, Pernambuco, Camaru, Rio das Velhas, Rio Janeiro, and San Matheo.

59. CITHARICHTHYS SUMICHRASTI.

Citharichthys sumichrasti Jordan, sp. nov.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is close to *C. spilopterus*, differing chiefly in the larger scales and in the different coloration. The type, No. 25299, in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, was collected in Rio Zanatenco, Chiapas, by Prof. Francis E. Sumichrast. Another specimen is in the museum labeled Panama: Pitkins.

Genus XXII.—ETROPUS.

Etropus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 364. (*Crossotus*.)

TYPE: *Etropus crossotus* Jordan & Gilbert.

This genus is very close to *Citharichthys*, from which it differs only in the very small size of the mouth, and in the correspondingly weak dentition. The three known species are similar in appearance to the species of *Citharichthys*, and they inhabit the same waters. Another genus extremely close to *Etropus* and *Citharichthys* is *Thysanopsetta*. The teeth in *Thysanopsetta* are, however, arranged in a band.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ETROPUS.

a. Body comparatively elongate, the head anteriorly acute; dorsal rays 91; anal rays 73; scales in the lateral line 54; back less elevated than in other species; head small, the profile forming an angle at the posterior part of upper eye, the snout being abruptly pointed; eyes large, $4\frac{1}{6}$ in head, the lower being before the upper; interorbital space elevated, with two prominent ridges, the space between them concave; ridge above lower eye higher than upper and joining the latter behind upper eye, to form a sharp ridge; upper eye with some vertical range; mouth very small, the maxillary 4 in head, not reaching front of pupil; teeth bluntnish, close-set, in one row, chiefly on the blind side; scales and fins much as in *E. crossotus*; the edge of the subopercle on the blind side fringed with white cirri, as in the latter species; scales large, loose, little ciliate; gill-rakers very short and slender; gill membranes broadly united; caudal fin rhombic, rather pointed; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; fin rays scaly; head 5 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{6}$; color light olive-brown, with vague spots and darker markings; fins similarly marked.

ECTENES, 60.

aa. Body deeper, the head not acute in profile; dorsal rays 76 to 85; anal 56 to 67; scales 38 to 48; teeth sharp, close-set, uniserial.

b. Body somewhat elongate, pear-shaped, the depth not more than half the length, the body thinner and more compressed than in *E. crossotus*; mouth very small, the maxillary $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space a narrow, sharp ridge; cirri on subopercle rather few and long; D. 77 to 78; A. 57 to 61; lat. l. 38 to 41. Head 4 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{4}$ to 2. Vertebrae 9 + 25 = 34. Color grayish, with a few irregular vague dark blotches, none of them larger than the eye; fins speckled; two dark spots at base of caudal.....

MICROSTOMUS, 61.

bb. Body very deep, the depth rather more than half the length; eye $3\frac{1}{4}$ in head; interorbital space a narrow, sharp ridge, divided anteriorly; maxillary about 4 in head; head $4\frac{1}{2}$; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 ($1\frac{1}{2}$ in Atlantic specimens). D. 76 to 85; A. 56 to 67; lat. l. 48 (42 to 45 in Atlantic specimens). Vertebrae 9 + 25 = 34; cirri on subopercle of blind side numerous, white; color light olive-brown, with some darker blotches; vertical fins finely mottled and speckled with black and gray.

CROSSOTUS, 62.

60. ETROPUS ECTENES.

Etropus ectenes Jordan, sp. nov..

Habitat.—Pacific coast of South America.

The types of this species are two examples (11605, Mus. Comp. Zool.) collected at Callao, Peru, by Dr. Jones. There are also a large number of young examples in the collection (11145) obtained at Paraca Bay by the Hassler Expedition.

The species is very readily distinguished from *E. crossotus* by its elongate form, acute head, and by the larger numbers of its fin-rays and scales.

61. ETROPUS MICROSTOMUS.

Citharichthys microstomus Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 223. (Beesley's Point, N. Jersey.)

Etropus rimosus Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 593. (Coast of Florida, between Pensacola and Cedar Keys, dredged at the depth of 21 fathoms.)

Etropus crossotus Jordan & Evermann, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886. (Pensacola.)

Habitat.—Gulf of Mexico.

On re-examining our specimens of *Etropus*, we find that those obtained by Jordan & Evermann from Pensacola differ from the others in the greater elongation of the body and in the somewhat grayer coloration. These correspond fairly to the description of *Etropus rimosus*. All other specimens from the United States coast collected by Dr. Jordan and his associates, are, in our opinion, referable to *Etropus crossotus*.

The original description of *Citharichthys microstomus* Gill, fits this species better than any other known. The fish in question is much too elongate for *Etropus crossotus* (depth $2\frac{2}{3}$ in total length), and the mouth is too small for any of the known species of *Citharichthys* (maxillary 4 in head; mandible $2\frac{1}{2}$).

In the Museum of Comparative Zoology are numerous young specimens collected at Somers Point, New Jersey, by Dr. Stimpson. These seem to belong to the genus *Etropus*. The teeth are equal; the scales are 44, and the depth of the body is $2\frac{1}{6}$ in its length. The eye is 4 in head, the dorsal rays 75 to 80, and the anal rays 56 or 57. The color is light brown, mottled and spotted with darker.

These certainly represent the *Citharichthys microstomus* of Gill, collected in the same neighborhood by the same naturalist. We are unable to distinguish them from *Etropus rimosus*.

62. ETROPUS CROSSOTUS.

Etropus crossotus Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 364 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 305 (Lake Pontchartrain; Mazatlan; Panama; Galveston). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 618 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Comm., 1882, 108-111 (Mazatlan; Panama). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 839. Bean, Cat. Fish. Intern. Exh., 1883, 44 (St. John's River). Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 234 (Cedar Keys).

Etropus microstomus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 29. (Beaufort, N. C.) (Not *Citharichthys microstomus* Gill.)

Habitat.—Both coasts of tropical America, north to North Carolina.

This little fish seems to be abundant in all warm and sandy shores of tropical America. It is the smallest and feeblest of all our flounders, and has therefore been generally overlooked by collectors. Its range will doubtless prove to be coextensive with that of its near ally, *Citharichthys spilopterus*.

In the Museum of Comparative Zoology are specimens of this species from Rio Janeiro, Santos, Victoria, Para, and Sambaia, in Brazil. The largest of these is 6 inches in length. Head 5 in length, depth, $1\frac{9}{10}$; scales, 44; D. 85; A. 67.

A re-examination of the specimens collected by Prof. O. P. Jenkins at Beaufort, N. C., and described by Dr. Jordan under the name of *Etropus microstomus*, shows that these are identical with the specimens of *Etropus* from Charleston, Cedar Keys, New Orleans, and Galveston. These differ from the types of *Etropus crossotus* only in the slightly greater depth of the body, and in the slightly larger size of the scales. We now refer them to the latter species without much hesitation, hardly regarding them worthy of even subspecific distinction.

Genus XXIII.—THYSANOPSETTA.

Thysanopsetta Günther, Voyage Challenger, Shore Fishes, 1880, 22 (*naresi*).

TYPE: *Thysanopsetta naresi* Günther.

We have not seen the typical species of *Thysanopsetta*. From the figure and description it would seem that the genus differs from *Etropus* only in having the teeth in villiform bands.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF THYSANOPSETTA.

- a. [Body oblong; head small; eyes $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, well separated, the interorbital space being flat and scaly; mouth moderate, the maxillary more than one-third head; teeth in villiform bands; scales adherent, ctenoid; a fleshy lobe behind ventrals; lateral line straight; head, 5; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 87; A. 59; lat. l. 76 (in plate); color, nearly uniform brownish, the body and fins mottled.] (Günther) NARESI, 63.

63. THYSANOPSETTA NARESI.

Thysanopsetta naresi Günther, Voyage Challenger, Shore Fishes, 1880, 22. (Cape Virgin, Straits of Magellan.)

Habitat.—Straits of Magellan.

We know this species from the original figure and description only.

Genus XXIV.—MONOLENE.

Monolene Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 337 (*sessilicauda*).

TYPE: *Monolene sessilicauda* Goode.

This peculiar genus of deep-sea flounders is probably allied to *Arnoglossus* and *Citharichthys*. Of this we cannot speak with certainty, not having examined any members of the group, and the insertion of the ventral fins has not been described in either of the two known species.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF MONOLENE.

- a. [Dorsal rays, 99 to 103; anal rays, 79 to 84; scales of blind side ctenoid, 23-92-25; head everywhere closely scaly, even to the lips and front of snout; mouth oblique, the maxillary less than one-third length of head; teeth, uniserial, subequal; eyes very close together, the interorbital space a very narrow ridge; arch of lateral line very peculiar, the curve having two angles; head 5 in length; depth, $2\frac{2}{3}$; ashy brown, with spots of darker brown; pectoral barred; vertebrae 43.] (Goode) SESSILICAUDA, 64.

aa. [Dorsal rays, 124; anal rays, 100; scales of blind side scarcely ctenoid, 30-105-32; snout and lips not scaly; maxillary 3 in head; eyes, large, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, separated by a very narrow ridge; head $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth about 3; light brownish gray, the fins dusky, the pectoral black.] (*Goode & Bean*) ATRIMANA, 65.

64. MONOLENE SESSILICAUDA.

Monolene sessilicauda Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, pp. 337, 338 (deep sea south of New England). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 472 (deep sea southern coast of New England, stations 870, 871, 876, 877). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 841. Goode and Bean, Bull. Mus. of Comp. Zool., xix, p. 184 (station 314; South Carolina).

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Gulf Stream.

This species is known to us from the accounts of Goode & Bean.

65. MONOLENE ATRIMANA.

Monolene atrimana Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xii, 155, 1886 (deep waters off Barbadoes).

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Caribbean Sea.

This species is known to us from the original description.

Genus XXV.—ONCOPTERUS.

Oncopterus Steindachner, Ueber eine neue Gattung und Art aus der Familie der Pleuronectoiden, 1874, 1 (*darwini*).

TYPE: *Oncopterus darwini* Steindachner.

This singular genus is based on a single species found on the shores of East Patagonia. It has no near allies among the American flounders, but it has several points of resemblance to the genera *Rhombosolea*, *Ammotretis*, and *Peltorhamphus* of the Australian fauna, and we have ventured to associate the four in a subfamily, which may be called *Oncopterinae*. The *Oncopterinae* agree in having some sort of peculiar appendage on or near the snout, apparently connected with the first interspinal. They agree with the *Platessinae* in the general form, the dextral portion of the eyes, and in the structure of the mouth. Their nearest ally in this group is *Pleuronichthys*. In the insertion of the ventrals, they agree with the *Pleuronectinae* and with the genus *Achirus* of the *Soleinae*. In both *Peltorhamphus* and *Rhombosolea*, the ventral is continuous with the anal as in *Zeugopterus* and *Achirus*, but in *Oncopterus* the two fins are separate. In *Peltorhamphus* and *Rhombosolea*, the bone connected with the first interspinal extends forward as a sort of nose, meeting the chin (much as in *Achiropsis* and *Apionichthys*). In *Oncopterus* this bone is twisted to the blind side, and has a very peculiar position, described below. The scales are smooth and cycloid in *Oncopterus* and *Rhombosolea*, ctenoid in *Peltorhamphus*. In *Peltorhamphus* and *Oncopterus* the left ventral is present. It is wanting in *Rhombosolea*. *Ammotretis* we have been unable to examine. In *Oncopterus* the lateral line has an anterior arch and many accessory branches. It is straight and simple in the other genera. In all the teeth are sharp, close set, in a band, and chiefly on the blind side.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ONCOPTERUS.

- a. Body broadly ovate, with regular outlines; mouth small, twisted toward the blind side; its teeth small and in bands; maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $5\frac{1}{2}$, twice the concave interorbital area; gill-rakers short and slender; left side above eye with a deep horizontal groove, in which lies a depressible curved bone as long as the maxillary. This seems to be attached to the first interneural, and is probably a modified fin-ray. On its upper edge on either side is a fringe of short fleshy projections resembling the gill fringes, but much shorter. Scales small, mostly smooth. Lateral line with a long, low arch, from which four accessory branches extend vertically upward. Another branch behind curve, and about 6 on head; blind side similar; no anal spine. Right ventral of six rays, placed wide apart along the ridge of the abdomen, but not joining the anal and not extending forward of the isthmus. Left ventral lateral, with narrow base. Color dark brown, everywhere covered with whitish stellate spots. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$ in length. Depth, 2. D., 61. A., 45. V., 6. Scales, 115 DARWINI, 66.

66. ONCOPTERUS DARWINI.

Rhombus sp. Darwin, Jenyns, Voyage of the Beagle, Fishes, 1842 (east coast of Patagonia).

Oncopterus darwini Steindachner, Ueber Eine neue Gattung, etc, Pleuronectoiden, 1874, 1 (San Mathias Bay, Eastern Patagonia).

Habitat.—Eastern coast of Patagonia.

Of this species we have examined numerous specimens in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. Nos. 11397 and 11398 are adult examples from San Mathias Bay. To this lot belong Dr. Steindachner's original types. There is also a bottle of young examples (11311, M. C. Z.) from Rio Grande do Sul.

Genus XXVI.—PLEURONICHTHYS.

Pleuronichthys Girard, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 139 (*cænosus*).

Heteroprosopon Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Amsterdam, xiii, 1862, 8 (*cornutus*).

Parophrys Günther, Cat. Fishes, iv, 454, 1862 (not of Girard).

TYPE: *Pleuronichthys cænosus* Girard.

This well-marked genus contains three American species, which are very closely related to each other. The Asiatic species, *Platessa cornuta* Schlegel, of the coasts of China and Japan, is also a member of this group, having an accessory branch to the lateral line as in the American species. This species bears some resemblance to *Pl. verticalis*.

The species of *Pleuronichthys* are herbivorous. They spawn in the spring, and live in comparatively deep water.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLEURONICHTHYS.

- a. Dorsal fin beginning on the level of the lower lip, its first nine rays on the blind side; a blunt tubercle at front of upper eye, another at each end of the narrow interorbital ridge, the posterior largest but usually not spine-like; two or three above the latter, behind the upper eye; some prominences above the opercle; head $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 72; A. 40; vertebrae $14+26=40$; color brownish, usually much mottled with brown and gray, often finely speckled on body and fins DECURRENS, 67.

- aa.* Dorsal fin beginning on level of upper lip, about five rays being on the blind side.
- b.* Interorbital ridge posteriorly with a very strong, backward directed spine; some tubercles on interorbital ridge; head 4; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 65 to 72, A. 45 to 48; vertebrae $13+25=38$; color dark olive brown, much mottled and sometimes with grayish spots; middle of sides often with dark ocellus. *VERTICALIS*, 68.
- bb.* Interorbital ridge prominent, but without spines or conspicuous tubercles; right side of lower jaw with a narrow band of teeth; head $4\frac{1}{2}$; depth $1\frac{1}{4}$; D. 68, A. 48 to 50; color light brown, usually profusely mottled, the colors variable *CÆNOSUS*, 69.

67. PLEURONICHTHYS DECURRENS.

Pleuronichthys cænous Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 97 (San Francisco) (not *Pleuronichthys cænous* Girard).

Pleuronichthys quadriruberculatus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 50 (not of Pallas). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 189 (Monterey, Point Reyes, Farallones).

Pleuronichthys decurrens Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (San Francisco; Monterey Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 69 (Monterey, San Francisco, Farallones). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 829.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of United States, south to Monterey.

This species is rather scarce along the California coast, being taken chiefly in deep water. It reaches a larger size than either *P. verticalis* or *P. cænous*.

68. PLEURONICHTHYS VERTICALIS.

Pleuronichthys verticalis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 49 (San Francisco). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 169. Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 829. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 189 (Monterey, Point Reyes, Farallones).

Habitat.—Coast of California, in deep water.

This species agrees in habits and general characters with *Pleuronichthys decurrens*.

69. PLEURONICHTHYS CÆNOSUS.

Pleuronichthys cænous Girard, Proc. Phil. Acad. Sci., 1854, 139 (San Francisco). Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Exped., Fish., 1859, 151 (San Francisco). Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries California, 1878-'79, 45 (Farallones). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 97 (San Francisco). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 50 (Santa Catalina Island, San Luis Obispo). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 68 (San Diego, Puget Sound). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 830. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 189 (San Diego to Aleutian Islands).

Parophrys cænosa Günther, iv, 456, 1862.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of America, from the Aleutian Islands to San Diego.

This species is comparatively common in rather deep water and about rocks from Alaska southward, being most common about Puget Sound.

Its apparent abundance as compared with the other species of the genus is doubtless due to its inhabiting shallower waters than they.

Genus XXVII.—HYP SOPSETTA.

Hypsopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 195 (*guttulatus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronichthys guttulatus* Girard.

This genus consists of a single species, abundant on the coast of California. It is very close to *Pleuronichthys*, from which it differs only in a few characters of comparatively minor importance. Its range is in shallower and warmer water than that of the species of *Pleuronichthys*, and, in accordance with this fact, its flesh is firmer and its number of vertebræ less than in the latter genus.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF HYP SOPSETTA.

- a. Head without spines or tubercles; accessory lateral line half length of body; outline of body very broadly rhombic; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 68, A. 50, lat. 1.95. Vertebræ, $11 + 24 = 35$. Brown, with numerous pale bluish blotches, fading in spirits; blind side largely yellow in life..... **GUTTULATA**, 70.

70. HYP SOPSETTA GUTTULATA.

(THE DIAMOND FLOUNDER.)

Pleuronichthys guttulatus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1856, p. 137. Girard, Jour. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., 1857, pl. 25, figs. 1-4. Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Exped., Fishes, p. 152, 1859 (Tomales Bay). Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries California, 1878-79, p. 44. Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 94 (San Francisco).

Pleuronectes guttulatus Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 445, 1862 (copied).

Hypsopsetta guttulata Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 195. Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 453 (San Francisco, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 68 (Tomales, San Diego). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 830. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 185.

Parophrys ayresi Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 457 (San Francisco).

Habitat.—Coast of California; Cape Mendocino to Magdalena Bay.

This species is one of the most abundant in the shore waters of the California coast. It is a food-fish of fair quality.

Genus XXVIII.—PAROPHRYS.

Parophrys Girard, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 139 (*vetus*).

TYPE: *Parophrys vetulus* Girard.

This genus consists of a single species, common on the Pacific coast of the United States.

The narrow interorbital space and the vertical range of the upper eye give it a peculiar physiognomy, but in most regards it is not very different from some of the species of *Platessa*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PAROPHRYS.

- a. Body elongate-elliptical; snout very prominent, forming an abrupt angle with the descending profile; eyes large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, separated by a very narrow, high ridge, the upper eye encroaching on the dorsal outline; teeth small, trenchant, widened at tip; fin-rays scaleless; scales cycloid, those on cheeks usually ciliated, especially in northern specimens; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 74 to 86; A. 54 to 68; lat. l. 105; vertebrae $11 + 33 = 44$; uniform light olive-brown; the young sometimes spotted with blackish *VETULUS*, 71.

71. PAROPHRYS VETULUS.

Parophrys vetulus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, p. 140 (California). Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 455 (copied). Lockington, Rep. Com. Fish. Cal., 1878-9, p. 45. Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 100 (San Francisco). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay, Santa Barbara). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 68 (Santa Barbara, Monterey, Puget Sound). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 185 (Santa Barbara to Alaska).

Pleuronectes vetulus Jordan and Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 831.

Pleuronectes digrammus Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 445, 1862 (Victoria).

Parophrys hubbardi Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 281 (San Francisco).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of North America, Alaska to Santa Barbara.

This small flounder lives in waters of moderate depth. It is, next to *Platichthys stellatus*, probably the most abundant of the flounders of the California coast.

Genus XXIX.—INOPSETTA.

Inopsetta Jordan & Goss, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 136 (*ischyrus*).

TYPE: *Parophrys ischyrus* Jordan & Gilbert.

This genus contains a single species, closely allied to *Platichthys stellatus*, but separated from it by the curious character common to many of our Pacific coast flounders, of having an accessory branch to the lateral line. In technical characters there is not very much to separate *Inopsetta* from *Parophrys*, though the resemblance between *I. ischyra* and *P. vetulus* is not very close.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF INOPSETTA.

- a. Body oblong, robust; snout projecting, forming an angle with the profile; teeth narrow incisors; interorbital space rather broad, scaly; eyes large; lower pharyngeals each with two rows of coarse, blunt teeth; scales thick, firm, adherent, loosely imbricated, all ctenoid on both sides of body, those on head roughest; accessory lateral line short. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 2. D. 70 to 76; A. 52 to 57; lat. l. 85. Light olive-brown, with dusky blotches, blind side more or less spotted or tinged with rusty *ISCHYRA*, 72.

72. INOPSETTA ISCHYRA.

Parophrys ischyrus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 276 and 453 (Puget Sound). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 67 (Seattle). Jordan, Aquat. Anim., 1884, 185 (Seattle).

Pleuronectes ischyrus Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 831.

Isopsetta ischyra Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 136.

Habitat.—Puget Sound (probably northward to Alaska).

This species is known only from four specimens taken by Dr. Jordan at Seattle in 1880. It is a large rough flounder, with firm white flesh.

Genus XXX.—ISOPSETTA.

Isopsetta Lockington, MSS., Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1883, 832 (*iso* *lepis*).

TYPE: *Lepidopsetta isolepis* Lockington.

This genus consists of a single species found on the coast of California. It approaches in many respects very close to the large-mouthed flounders of the type of *Hippoglossoides*, and it may fairly be said to be intermediate between *Psettichthys* and *Lepidopsetta*. Its affinities on the whole seem to be nearest the latter.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ISOPSETTA.

- a. Body elliptical, much compressed, its outlines very regular; eyes rather large, the upper $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, the interorbital space broad, flattish, and scaly. Scales rather large, ctenoid, closely imbricated; maxillary $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth bluntnish, conical, close-set, but not forming a cutting edge. Lower pharyngeals each with two rows of bluntnish teeth; lateral line with a slight arch in front, and an accessory branch nearly as long as head. Head 4; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. 88; A. 65; lat. 1.88. Color dark-brown, mottled and blotched with darker. Vertebrae $10 + 32 = 42$.

ISOLEPIS, 73.

73. ISOPSETTA ISOLEPIS.

Lepidopsetta umbrosa Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 106. (San Francisco; not of Girard.)

Lepidopsetta isolepis Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 325. (San Francisco.)

Parophrys isolepis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 453, 1881, 67 (Puget Sound, San Francisco). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 832. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 186 (Monterey to Puget Sound).

Isopsetta isolepis Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 136.

Habitat.—Puget Sound to Point Concepcion, in rather deep water.

This small flounder is rather common off the coast of California, where it reaches a length of about 15 inches. It much resembles *Psettichthys melanostictus*, but its small mouth and blunt dentition indicates a real affinity with the small-mouthed flounders, among which it is here placed. Its nearest relative among our species is doubtless *Lepidopsetta bilineata*.

Genus XXXI.—LEPIDOPSETTA.

Lepidopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1864, 195 (*umbrosus*).

TYPE: *Platichthys umbrosus* Girard = *Platessa bilineata* Ayres.

This genus probably contains but a single species, abundant on the Pacific coasts of North America. It is close to *Inopsetta*, from which it is separated by the arch of the lateral line, and still closer to *Limanda*, from which the accessory branch of the lateral line alone separates it.

Pleuronectes variegatus Schlegel, from Japan, may belong to *Lepidopsetta*.

The same name, *Lepidopsetta*, has been lately given by Dr. Günther to a very different genus of flounders. For the group so-called the name *Mancopsetta* of Gill should be used.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LEPIDOPSETTA.

- a. Body broadly ovate, thickish; teeth bluntnish, subconical: lower pharyngeals with two rows of blunt teeth. Snout projecting, forming an angle; eyes large, separated by a prominent scaly ridge. Scales small, mostly ctenoid, those on the head very rough, especially in northern specimens (var. *umbrosa*); scales of the blind side smooth; accessory lateral line half length of head. Anal spine present. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. 80; A. 60; lat. 1.85. Vertebrae, $11+29=40$. Yellowish brown, with numerous round pale blotches **BILINEATA**, 74.

74. LEPIDOPSETTA BILINEATA

[Plate XI.]

Platessa bilineata Ayres, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Cal., 1855, p. 40 (San Francisco).
Pleuronectes bilineatus Günther, Cat. Fish., 444, 1862 (copied). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 833.

Lepidopsetta bilineata Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 195. Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 103 (San Francisco). Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries California, 1878-'79, p. 46 (Farallone Islands). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 68 (Monterey, Puget Sound). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 241 (Monterey Bay, San Francisco, Puget Sound). Bean, Cat. Col. Fish. U. S. Nat. Mus., p. 19, 1883 (Port Chatham, Cook's Inlet). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 353 (Carter Bay, British Columbia). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 184, pl. 50 (Monterey to Alaska).

Platichthys umbrosus Girard, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1856, 136. (Puget Sound.)

Pleuronectes umbrosus Günther, iv, 1862, 454. (Esquimault Harbor.)

Pleuronectes perareuatus Cope, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1873. (Alaska.)

Habitat.—Pacific coast of North America, Alaska to Monterey.

This species is one of the commonest of the flounders of the Pacific coast, its abundance apparently increasing towards the northward. It reaches a weight of five or six pounds and is an inhabitant of shallow waters. Specimens from Puget Sound and northward are rougher than Southern specimens and constitute a slight geographical variety, for which the name of *Lepidopsetta bilineata umbrosa* may be used. This is the same as the *perareuatus* of Cope.

Genus XXXII.—LIMANDA.

Limanda Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 100 (*limanda*).

Myzopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 217 (*ferruginea*.)

TYPE: *Pleuronectes limanda* Linnaeus.

This genus is closely allied to *Pseudopleuronectes*, from which it differs only in the presence of an arch on the anterior part of the lateral line. Four species of *Limanda* are now recognized.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF *LIMANDA*.

- a. Head comparatively large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length.
 b. Scales rather small, 90 to 100 in the course of the lateral line; scales of right side ctenoid, closely imbricated; those of blind side mostly smooth.
 c. Teeth conical, close-set, forming a continuous series, about $11 + 30$ in the lower jaw; snout abruptly projecting, forming in front of upper eye a sharp angle with the descending profile; head rather long; eyes large, separated by a high and very narrow ridge, which is continued in long rugose prominences above the opercle. Head 4; depth $2\frac{1}{3}$; D. 85; A. 62; lat. l. 100; color brownish olive, with numerous irregular reddish spots; fins similarly marked; blind side largely lemon-yellow..... *FERRUGINEA*, 75.
 c. Teeth less conical, less closely set, in an irregular series, about $10 + 20$ in lower jaw; snout less prominent, forming a slight angle with the profile; head rather smaller; eyes separated by a moderate ridge, broader and lower than in *L. ferruginea*; no rugose prominences above opercle. Head $4\frac{1}{2}$; depth $2\frac{1}{4}$; D. 65 to 78; A. 50 to 62; scales 86 to 96; vertebrae 40; color brownish, with some cloudy markings or dusky spots..... *LIMANDA*, 76.
 bb. Scales larger, wide apart, about 80 in the course of the lateral line, each scale with 1 to 4 spinules, those mostly erect; scales of blind side more or less rough; lower pharyngeals narrow, with bluntnish teeth; interorbital space narrow, scaly; head large; snout not forming a distinct angle with the profile; teeth small, subconical. Head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 2; D. 69 to 74; A. 53 or 54; lat. l. about 80. Color brown, nearly plain, the blind side with tinges of yellow..... *ASPERA*, 77.
 aa. [Head very short, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in length; snout very short; interorbital space very narrow; teeth small, apparently biserial, chiefly on the blind side; curve of lateral line half as deep as long, as long as head; scales strongly ctenoid, those on blind side smaller and cycloid. Head, $5\frac{1}{2}$; depth, $2\frac{2}{3}$; D. 64; A. 63; lat. l. 88 = (27+61). Color grayish, mottled with darker, a conspicuous black blotch on outer rays of caudal on each side.] (*Goode*)..... *BEANI*, 78.

75. *LIMANDA FERRUGINEA*.

(THE RUSTY DAB.)

[Plate XII.]

Platessa ferruginea D. H. Storer, Fish. Mass., 1839, 141, pl. 2 (Cape Ann). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 297, pl. 48, f. 155 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, 476.

Pleuronectes ferrugineus Günther, iv, 447, 1862 (Boston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 834.

Myzopsetta ferruginea Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 217.

Limanda ferruginea Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 472 (New England). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, pl. 49.

Platessa rostrata H. R. Storer, Bost. Journal Nat. Hist., vi, 268, 1850 (Labrador).

Limanda rostrata Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 217.

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of North America, Labrador to New York.

This species is rather common northward on our Atlantic coast. It is allied to the European Dab, but has smaller scales and a more prominent snout. Our specimens are from the east coast of Massachusetts.

76. LIMANDA LIMANDA.

(THE DAB.)

Pleuronectes limanda Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, p. 270, 1758 (after Artedi) (and of the early copyists). Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 446, 1862 (Firth of Forth; Plymouth). Day, Brit. Fishes, vol. ii, p. 31, plate civ.

Pleuronectes limandula Lacépède, Hist. Nat., Poiss., iv, 1803 (after "la Limandelle"). Duhamel, ix, ch. 1, p. 268, pl. 6, f. 3, 4.)

Limanda vulgaris Gottsche, "Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 100."

Limanda oceanica Bonaparte, Catalogo, 48, 1846. (*Platessa limanda* L.)

? *Limanda pontica* Bonaparte, l. c., 48, 1846 (Black Sea, after Pallas).

Pleuronectes linguatula Gronow, Syst., ed. Gray, 1854, 88 (not of L.).

Habitat.—Northern coasts of Europe, south to France.

This small flounder is abundant on the coasts of Northern Europe and southward to the coasts of France. Our specimens are from the market at Paris.

Günther speaks of other specimens, more elongate, the depth being but two-fifths the length without caudal. The synonym *Pleuronectes limandula* would appear to belong to this latter type.

77. LIMANDA ASPERA.

[Plate XIII.]

Pleuronectes asper Pallas, Zoogr. Rosso.-Asiat., 1811, iii, 425 (east coast of Siberia).

Günther, iv, 454, 1862 (copied). Steindachner, Pleuronectiden, etc., aus Decastris Bay, 1870-'5 (Decastris Bay). Jordan and Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 835. (Description from Alaskan specimens collected by Dr. Bean.)

Limanda aspera Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 242 (Sitka, St. Paul, Humboldt Harbor, Shumagins, Port Clarence, Plover Bay, Siberia; Indian Point, Siberia). Bean, Cat. Col. Fish, U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 20. (Sitka, Alaska.) Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 354 (Port Simpson, Cardenas Bay, British Columbia). Bean, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 184, pl. 48. (Gulf of Alaska, Unalashka, Sitka, Wrangel.)

Habitat.—Coasts of Alaska and Kamtschatka.

This species is chiefly known from the accounts given by Dr. Bean, who has collected it in various localities in Alaska. Its scales are larger and rougher than in *L. ferruginea* which, in many respects, it resembles. A specimen from the island of Saghalien is in the museum at Cambridge.

78. LIMANDA BEANI.

Limanda beani Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 473 (southern coast New England, deep-sea stations, 875, 876).

Pleuronectes beani Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 835, 1882.

Habitat.—Deep water off the coasts of New England.

We know this species only from the accounts given by Professor Goode.

Genus XXXIII.—PSEUDOPLEURONECTES.

Pseudopleuronectes Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Amst., Pleuron., 7, 1862 (*planus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes planus* Mitchell = *Pleuronectes americanus* Walbaum.

This genus is distinguished from *Platessa* chiefly by the well-imbricated ctenoid scales, and from *Limanda*, which it more closely resembles, by the want of arch to the lateral line. Besides the typical species, we refer to this genus a second from the North Pacific.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PSEUDOPLEURONECTES.

- a. Dorsal rays 65; anal rays 48. Body regularly elliptical; a very slight angle above eye; interorbital space rather broad, convex, half as wide as eye, and entirely scaly; a low granular ridge above opercle. Head 4; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; lat. l. 83. Vertebrae $10 + 26 = 36$. Color dark rusty brown, plain or mottled with darker; fins nearly plain AMERICANUS, 79.
- aa. [Dorsal rays 58; anal 38. Body subelliptical, the snout rather pointed, and not forming an angle above eye; interorbital space rather broad, half width of eye; a rather prominent rugose ridge above opercle, with a smaller similar ridge behind it; both sides of jaws with teeth. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth $2\frac{1}{6}$; lat. l. 70. Color brown, with vague dusky spots; six or seven blackish vertical bars on dorsal and anal; similar lengthwise blotches on caudal.] (Steindachner). PINNIFASCIATUS, 80.

79. PSEUDOPLEURONECTES AMERICANUS.

(THE COMMON FLAT-FISH OR WINTER FLOUNDER.)

[Plate XIV.]

Flounder, Schöpf, "Schrift. Gesellschaft Naturforschender Freunde, viii, 1788, 148." (New York.)

Pleuronectes americanus Walbaum, Artedi, Piscium, 1792, 113 (based on the "Flounder" of Schöpf). Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 1801, 150 (copied). Günther, iv, 443, 1862 (New York). Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis, 1882, 837. Stearns, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 125 (Labrador).

Pseudopleuronectes americanus Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 216. Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 182, pl. 44 (Chesapeake Bay to Bay of Chaleur).

Platessa plana Storer, Fishes Mass., 1839, 140. DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 295, pl. 49, f. 158, 1842 (New York). Storer, Synopsis, 1846, 476.

Pseudopleuronectes planus Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Amsterd., xiii, 1862, 7.

Platessa pusilla DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 296, pl. 47, f. 153 (New York). Storer, Synopsis, 1846, 477.

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of North America from Labrador to Chesapeake Bay.

This small flounder is one of the most abundant of the group on our Atlantic coast. It reaches a length of about 15 inches and a weight of less than two pounds. It is a very good food-fish and sells readily in the markets. Along the south coast of Massachusetts this species is more abundant than any other of the flat-fishes.

The specimens examined by us are from Labrador, Cape Breton, Anticosti, Grand Menan, Boston, Provincetown, Wood's Holl, New Bedford, and Somers Point, New Jersey.

80. PSEUDOPLEURONECTES PINNIFASCIATUS.

Pleuronectes pinnifasciatus (Kner) Steindachner, Ueber einige Pleuronectiden, etc., aus Decastris Bay, 1870, 2, pl. 1, f. 1 (Decastris Bay).

Habitat.—Sea of Kamtschatka, Decastris Bay.

This species is known to us only from Dr. Steindachner's description and excellent figure. From this we conclude that it belongs to the group called *Pseudopleuronectes*, although its pharyngeals have not been described. It seems to us nearer to *P. americanus* than to *Liopsetta glacialis*.

Genus XXXIV.—PLATESSA.

Pleuronectes Artedi, Genera, etc., in part.

Pleuronectes Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 268, 1758 (includes all known *Pleuronectidae*).

Platessa Cuvier, Règne Animal, ii, 1817 (*platessa*), (first subdivision of *Pleuronectes* L.).

Platessa Fleming, Brit. Anim., 1828, 198 (*vulgaris*=*platessa*), (first restriction of *Pleuronectes* L. to *Pl. maximus* and relatives).

Pleuronectes Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Anim., ii, 1839 (*platessa*), (second restriction of *Pleuronectes*).

Platessa DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842 (*platessa*).

Pleuronectes Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Amsterd., xiii, 1862 (*platessa*), (and of most recent authors).

Flesus Moreau, Poissons de France, 1881, 299 (*flesus*).

TYPE: *Pleuronectes platessa* Linnaeus.

The reasons for retaining for this genus the name *Platessa* instead of *Pleuronectes* have been given under the head of the latter genus.

It is possible that the numerous related groups or genera, *Pseudopleuronectes*, *Platichthys*, and *Liopsetta*, should not be separated from *Platessa*. Convenience in definition of the groups seems, however, best served by regarding each of these types as forming a distinct genus, though whether they are called genera or subgenera is a matter of minor importance. The group *Flesus* is fairly well defined, and may, perhaps, also merit generic rank.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLATESSA.

- a. Teeth incisor-like, compressed, close set, forming a continuous cutting edge; no stellate scales at bases of dorsal and anal rays; lower pharyngeals narrow, the teeth almost uniserial. (*Platessa*.)
- b. Snout projecting, forming a distinct angle above eye PLATESSA, 81.
 x. Scales all cycloid, no ciliated scales anywhere; a series of about six small, bony tubercles on ridge above opercles; a small tubercle behind upper eye, and one before lower; interorbital space narrow, smooth. Head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, 2. D. 67 to 77. A. 50 to 57. Vertebræ, $14 + 29 = 43$. Color, brownish or dusky, with rather large, round yellowish spots, which fade in spirits. (These spots rarely black, and persistent.)...Var. *platessa*, 81 (a).

- xx. Scales not all cycloid, some of those along lateral line, along the base of dorsal and anal and on sides of head and abdomen ciliated, otherwise as in the preceding. D. 62 to 66. A. 46 to 48. Light brownish, with yellow spots. (*Gottzsche*)..... Var. *pseudoflesus*, 81 (b).
- bb. Snout not projecting, not forming a distinct angle above eye; tubercles on ridge above opercle at base of lateral line, coarser than in *Pl. platessa*, and about five in number; a small tubercle behind upper eye; scales small, cycloid in all specimens examined. Head, $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth, 2. D. 68. A. 50. Lat. 1.78. Color, grayish, mottled with paler and with round black spots; fins very dark QUADRITUBERCULATA, 82.
- aa. Teeth in jaws small, conical, well-separated, not forming a continuous cutting edge; a stellate scale or tubercle at the base of each ray of dorsal and anal; lower pharyngeals rather narrow, each with four or five rows of teeth. (*Flesus Moreau*.)
- c. Body oblong-elliptical, a small angle above eye. Head, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth, $2\frac{1}{2}$; vertebræ $12 + 24 = 36$ FLESUS, 83.
- y. Sides of head and anterior portion of lateral line with coarse stellate scales or tubercles; smaller ones on sides of abdomen, the scales otherwise cycloid; granular ridge above opercle usually without tubercles. D. 60 to 62. A. 39 to 45. Color brownish, irregularly mottled, the blind side rarely spotted with darker Var. *flesus*, 83 (a).
- yy. Sides of head and lateral line nearly or quite destitute of tubercles, the scales all cycloid except those at the bases of the fin-rays and a few about the eyes; ridge above opercle usually with one or two rugose prominences. D. 62 to 64. A. 41 to 48. Color, dark-brown, often marbled with darker, the blind side usually with irregular dark spots..... Var. *glabra*, 83 (b).

81. PLATESSA PLATESSA.

(THE PLAICE.)

[Plate XV.]

a. Var. *platessa*.

Pleuronectes No. 1, Artedi, Genera, etc.

Pleuronectes platessa Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 269 (after Artedi) (and of the early copyists). Günther, iv, 440 (Firth of Forth; Brighton; Bohuslän). Day, Fish. Great Britain, ii, 25, pl. ci (and of recent writers generally).

Scophthalmus diurus Rafinesque, Indice di Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 53 (based on the Quarrelot of Rondelet).

Platessa vulgaris Fleming, British Anim., 198, 1828 (and of numerous authors).

Pleuronectes latus Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1828 (deformed example, France).

Pleuronectes borealis "Faber, Isis, 1828, 863" (Iceland).

b. Var. *pseudoflesus* (variety?).

Platessa pseudoflesus Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 143 (German Ocean).

Pleuronectes pseudoflesus Günther, iv, 441 (copied).

Habitat.—Coasts of northern Europe, south to Italy.

This is one of the most common of the flat-fishes of Europe, and is, next to the halibut and the turbot, the one of most importance as a food-fish. It reaches usually a weight of five or six pounds, although speci-

mens of 15 pounds have been recorded. It is rather more northerly in its range than the mud-flounder, it being a comparatively rare species in the Mediterranean.

Our specimens of this species are from the markets of Paris. We have examined others in the Museum at Cambridge, from various localities in France, England, Holland, and Scandinavia. There are also a number of specimens from Trieste (Coil. Salmin). In one lot of these there are large black rounded blotches, inky in color, and permanent in alcohol. These take the place of the usual orange spots, which are evanescent in alcohol. Others from the same locality have the usual coloration.

We know nothing of the species called "*pseudoflesus*." It seems to us likely that it is a variety, or perhaps accidental variation, of *Platessa platessa*, the chief difference consisting in the presence of ciliated scales on the head and other parts of the body. It must be regarded as a very doubtful species at the best.

The alleged species *Platessa borealis* is also unknown to us. It is said to differ in having smaller teeth—31 on the blind side of the premaxillary.

82. PLATESSA QUADRITUBERCULATA.

Pleuronectes quadrituberculatus Pallas, Zoogr. Rosso-Asiat., iii, 423, 1811 (sea between Kamtschatka and Alaska). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 241 (Kodiak). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 836 (from specimens collected by Dr. W. J. Fisher).

Parophrys quadrituberculatus Günther, iv, 456 (copied).

Pleuronectes pallasi Steindachner, Ichth. Beitr., viii, 45, 1879, plate (Kamtschatka).

Habitat.—Behring Sea.

This small flounder is known to us only from descriptions and from a specimen (28025) collected by Mr. W. J. Fisher at Kodiak, described by Jordan and Gilbert. It seems to be a rare species even in the remote regions it inhabits. Although its pharyngeal teeth have not been examined, there can be little doubt that it will prove a near ally of *Platessa platessa*.

83. PLATESSA FLESUS.

(THE MUD-FLOUNDER OR FLUKE.)

a. Var. *flesus*.

Pleuronectes flesus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 270, 1758 (after Aristedi, and of copyists). Günther, iv, 450, 1862. Steindachner, Ichthyol. Bericht., Sechste Fortsetzung, 53, 1868 (Bilboa, Coruña, Vigo, Barcelona, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Rio Miño, Pomerania, Kattegat; unites *flesus* and *glabra*; Spanish localities belong to the latter). Day, Fish. Great Britain, vol. ii, 33, pl. xv, and of recent authors generally.

Platessa flesus Fleming, British Anim., 1828, 198, and of numerous writers.

Pleuronectes passer Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 271, 1758 (reversed example).

Pleuronectes flesoides Pontoppidan, "Hist. Nat. Daniae, 158, tab. 15," 1765 (reversed example).

Pleuronectes roseus Shaw, "Nat. Misc., vii, 238," 1800 (albino example).

Pleuronectes luscus Pallas, Zoogr. Rosso-Asiat., iii, 427, 1811 (Black Sea). "Nordmann, in Demidoff, Voy. Russ. Mérid., iii, 532, Fisc., tab. 27" (Black Sea). Günther, iv, 452 (copied).

Pleuronectes carnaria Brown, "Edinburgh Journal, Nat. and Geol., ii, 99, t. ii" (albino example), 1830.

Platessa melanogaster Higgins, "Zoologist, xiii, 1855, 4596" (doubled example).

Pleuronectes bogdanovi Sandeberg, Bull. Sci. Mosc., lii, pt. 2, p. 236, 1878 (White Sea).

Flesus vulgaris Moreau, Poiss. de France, 1881, iii, 299.

b. Var. glabra.

Platessa glabra Rathke, Fauna der Krym., 352, 1837 (Crimea).

Platessa passer Bonaparte, Fauna Italica, Pesci, 1838-1840.

Pleuronectes italicus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 452 (Dalmatia).

Habitat.—All coasts of Europe, ascending the streams; the typical form in northern Europe; var. *glabra* in the Mediterranean,

This small species is the common "flounder" or "fluke" of Europe. It is almost everywhere very abundant, but it is held in low esteem as a food-fish. It reaches a length of less than a foot. Our specimens of the typical form, *flesus*, are from the markets of Paris, but we have examined others from various localities in northern Europe. The form called *lusca*, from the Black Sea, we have not seen, and do not know whether it differs at all from the typical *flesus* or not.

The common Mediterranean form called *glabra* (*italicus*) differs a good deal in appearance from the ordinary *flesus*, but this difference lies mainly in the greater smoothness of the scales about the head.

The numerous specimens before us from Venice and Trieste differ from those of *flesus* only in the entire absence of the stellate tubercles which cover the head and the neighborhood of the lateral line in that species. Steindachner regards the two as unquestionably identical. Still it seems best to regard them as distinct subspecies, especially as no intermediate specimens have come to our notice. Rathke's description of *Platessa glabra* evidently belongs to the form called *italicus* by Dr. Günther. Rathke's *lusca* agrees with the typical *flesus*. The *Pleuronectes bogdanovi* of Sandeberg from the White Sea seems to be nearly the same as the typical *flesus*. It is said to be deeper (depth 2 in length), smoother, with shorter pectorals (2 in head). Teeth truncate, close-set. Body smooth, except for a row of tubercles on eyed side on bases of dorsal and anal, and two or three similar rows on front of lateral line. D, 53 to 56; A, 37 or 38.

Genus XXXV.—LIOPSETTA.

Liopsetta Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 217 (*glaber*) (females).

Euchalarodus Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 222 (*putnami*) (males).

TYPE: *Platessa glabra* Storer = *Euchalarodus putnami* Gill.

This genus comprises one, two, or three species of small flounders of the Arctic seas. The genus is distinguished by the large, half-united pharyngeals, as also by the peculiar squamation, the scales in the males being very rough, in the females smooth. This difference has given rise

to the nominal genus *Euchalarodus* based on the males, while *Liopsetta* was based on the smoother females, which were erroneously supposed to be scaleless.

The following analysis gives the supposed differential characters of these species, but these characters are of very slight importance, and it is probable that the three nominal species are all varieties of *Liopsetta glacialis*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LIOPSETTA.

- a. Ridge above opercle ending in two obtuse tubercles; scales of blind side smooth, those of the eyed side ciliated (probably in males only); interorbital ridge prominent, acute; head, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in total with caudal; depth, $2\frac{3}{4}$. D., 50 to 57; A., 36 to 41.] (*Lilljeborg*)..... DVINENSIS, 84.
 - aa. Ridge above opercle coarsely rugose, divided toward its end, but without distinct tubercles; scales ctenoid on both sides in males, those of the blind side smoother.
 - b. Pectoral fin long, about half length of head in the females, two-thirds head in the males. Head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, 2. D., 55; A., 40; Lat. l., 70. Color, grayish brown, mottled with darker; fins with blackish spots. (Probably identical with the next)..... PUTNAMI, 85.
 - bb. Pectoral fin short, barely half length of head even in the males; head, 4; depth, 2; D., 56; A., 37 to 42. Vertebræ, $13+27=40$. Color, dark brown, the fins spotted.
- GLACIALIS,* 86.

84. LIOPSETTA DVINENSIS.

Platessa dvinensis "Lilljeborg, Vet.-Akad. Handl., 1850, p. 360, tab. 20" (mouth of River Dwina). Nilsson, "Skand. Fauna, iv, 617."

Pleuronectes dvinensis Günther, iv, 442 (copied).

Habitat.—Arctic coasts of Russia.

This species is known to us only from the description copied by Günther from Lilljeborg. It is apparently a species very closely related to *Liopsetta glacialis*, and it is most likely identical with the latter.

85. LIOPSETTA PUTNAMI.

(THE EEL-BACK FLOUNDER.)

[Plate XVI.]

Platessa glabra Storer, Proc. Boston Soc. Nat. Hist., p. 130, 1843 (female). Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., p. 477, 1846. Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., 1867, p. 199, pl. xxxi, fig. 1. Putnam, Bull. Essex Inst., vi, 1874, p. 12 (not of Rathke, 1837).

Liopsetta glabra Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, p. 217.

Pleuronectes glaber Gill, in Report U. S. Com. Fish and Fisheries, 1873, p. 794. Goode and Bean, Amer. Jour. Sci. and Arts, xiv, 1877, p. 476; xvii, 1879, p. 40. Goode and Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 347 (Casco Bay, Beverly Bridge, Salem, Bucksport, Me.). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 836. Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, p. 183, pl. 45.

Euchalarodus putnami Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1864, p. 216-221 (Salem, Mass.) male. Gill, Report U. S. Com. Fish and Fisheries, 1873, p. 794. Goode and Bean, Amer. Jour. Arts and Sci., xiv, 1877.

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of North America, from Cape Cod northward to Labrador and beyond.

* The pharyngeals in *dvinensis* and *glacialis* have not been examined.

This species is rather common along the coast of Northern Massachusetts and northward to Labrador. Specimens are frequently found in the markets, mixed with those of *Pseudopleuronectes americanus*. The numerous specimens in our possession were found in the markets of Indianapolis, having been sent thither from Boston.

The remarkable sexual differences in the species have been fully discussed by Dr. Bean (Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 345), the form formerly called *Euchalarodus putnami* being the male, and that called *Pleuronectes glaber* being the female of the same species. These conclusions of Dr. Bean are fully corroborated by our series of specimens in which both sexes are fully represented.

As the name *Platessa glabra* is preoccupied by Rathke (1837), we must adopt the specific name *putnami* for this species if it be regarded as distinct from *Liopsetta glacialis*. Taking our own notes and the published plate of the latter species as a guide, we can see no difference whatever by which *Liopsetta putnami* may be separated from it. It is possible, however, that differences would appear on actual comparison of specimens. In view of the wide distance between the habitats of the two species, we here leave them separate for the present. Although *Liopsetta putnami* is abundant where found, its ascertained range is somewhat limited. The specimens in the U. S. National Museum represent localities from Salem, Mass., to Belfast, Me. In the Museum of Comparative Zoology the localities represented are Providence, Boston, Salem, Grand Manan, and Labrador.

86. LIOPSETTA GLACIALIS.

[Plate XVII.]

Pleuronectes glacialis Pallas, "Itin., iii, App., 706" (mouth of river Obi). Bloch and Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 1801, p. 150 (copied). Pallas, Zoogr. Ross.-Asiat., iii, 424, 1811 (mouth river Obi). Richardson, Fauna Bor. Amer., Fish., 258, 1836 (copied). DeKay, N. Y. Fauna, Fishes, p. 302, 1842 (copied). Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, p. 479 (copied). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 241 (Kotzebue Sound, Northern Alaska). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 837 (from specimens taken by Dr. Bean). Bean, Cat. Col. Fish U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 20 (Kotzebue Sound, Alaska). Bean, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 184, pl. 47 (Saint Michael's).

Pleuronectes cicatricosus Pallas, Zoogr. Ross.-Asiat., iii, 424, 1811 (male) (sea between Kamtschatka and Alaska).

Pleuronectes franklinii Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 442, 1862 (Arctic seas of America) (female). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 241.

Habitat.—Arctic Ocean south to Saint Michael's.

This small flounder is known to us only from the specimens taken by Dr. Bean. It is said to be abundant in the Arctic Ocean, and as far south as Saint Michael's, "although small, its great abundance and fine flavor make it important as an article of food."

The male is the rough fish described by Pallas as *P. cicatricosus*. The smoother female is Dr. Günther's *Pleuronectes franklinii*, the sexual differences being much as in *Liopsetta putnami*.

Indeed, as already intimated, we have little doubt that the *Liopsetta putnami* of the Atlantic is wholly identical with *Liopsetta glacialis* of the Arctic Ocean, and with *Liopsetta drinensis* of the northern coasts of Russia.

Genus XXXVI.—PLATICHTHYS.

Platichthys Girard, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 136 (*rugosus*=*stellatus*).

TYPE: *Platichthys rugosus* Girard= *Pleuronectes stellatus* Pallas.

This genus is composed of a single species, the largest of the small-mouthed flounders, and distinguished from related forms chiefly by the development of coarse stellate tubercles instead of scales.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLATICHTHYS.

a. Body broad and short, very robust, the snout forming a slight angle with the profile; interocular space broad, with very rough scales; tubercles or scales coarsest on head and along bases of fin-rays; lateral line without scales; ridge above opercle rough; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth, 2; D. 58; A. 42; vertebrae 34; color dark brown, with lighter markings; fins reddish-brown, dorsal and anal each with four or five black vertical bands; caudal with three or four black longitudinal bands.. **STELLATUS**, 87.

87. PLATICHTHYS STELLATUS.

(THE CALIFORNIA FLOUNDER.)

[Plate XVIII.]

Pleuronectes stellatus Pallas, Zoographia Rosso-Asiatica, iii, 1811, 416 (Alaska). Günther, Cat. Fish., iv, 443, 1862 (Vancouver Islands, Behring Strait, Fraser River, Coronation Gulf). Steindachner, Pleur. von Decastris Bay, 1870, 1, (Decastris Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (San Francisco, Puget Sound, Columbia River, Monterey Bay, San Luis Obispo). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 68 (San Luis Obispo). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 240 (San Luis Obispo, Monterey, San Francisco, Columbia River, Puget Sound). Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882. Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 353 (Port Simpson, Brit. Col.). Beau, Cat. Col. Fish. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, p. 20 (Yakutat Bay, Alaska). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 184, pl. 46 (San Luis Obispo to Kamtschatka).

Platessa stellata DeKay, N. Y. Fauna, Fishes, p. 301, 1842 (copied). Storer, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1846, p. 478 (copied).

Platichthys stellatus Lockington, Rep. Com. Fish. Cal., 1878-79, p. 43 (San Francisco Bay, Humboldt Bay). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 91 (San Francisco).

Platichthys rugosus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, pp. 139, 155. Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Sur., Fish., 148, 1859 (San Francisco, Presidio, Petaluma).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of America, from Point Concepcion to the Arctic Ocean and south to Saghalien.

This is one of the largest of the American flounders, reaching a weight of 15 to 20 pounds. Of the small-mouthed flounders, it is considerably the largest species known. It is an excellent food-fish, and from its size and abundance it is one of the most important of the group in the region where it is found, constituting half the total catch of flounders on our Pacific coast. It lives in shallow water and sometimes ascends the larger rivers. It is one of the most widely distributed of all the flounders, its range extending from San Luis Obispo, where it was obtained by Jordan and Gilbert, to the mouth of the Anderson and Colville Rivers on the Arctic coast, where it was observed by Dr. Bean. A specimen from the island of Saghalien in Asia is in the museum at Cambridge.

Genus XXXVII.—MICROSTOMUS.

Microstomus Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 150 (*latidens*) (not *Microstoma* Riso, 1826).

Cynicoglossus Bonaparte, Fauna Italica, 1837, fasc., xix (*cynoglossus* Nilsson, not of L.).

Cynoglossa Bonaparte, Catalogo Metódico Pesci Europei, 1846, 48 (*microcephalus*), not *Cynoglossus* Hamilton, 1822).

Brachyprosopon Bleeker, Comptes Rendus Acad. Sci. Amsterd., xiii, Pleuron, 7, 1862 (*microcephalus*).

Cynicoglossus Jordan and Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 460 (*microcephalus*).

TYPE: *Microstomus latidens* Gottsche = *Pleuronectes kitt* Walbaum.

This genus is widely separated from *Platessa* and its allies by its greatly increased number of vertebræ, a character accompanied by a similar increase in the number of fin-rays. It is close to *Glyptocephalus*, but the lack of the cavernous structure of the bones of the head, a structure peculiar to the species of that genus, sufficiently distinguishes it. Two species are known, small flounders of the Arctic seas, inhabiting considerable depths.

We here retain the generic name *Microstomus*, although in accordance with recent usage of most ornithologists and ichthyologists, it should be suppressed, as identical with *Microstoma*. The two words are from the same root and differ only in the termination. But is not this difference enough? The code of nomenclature of the American Ornithologists' Union very properly declares that "a name is only a name and has no necessary meaning," and, therefore, no necessarily correct spelling, except the spelling selected by the writer from whom it dates its origin. As a result of this, the original spelling of each generic name is (undoubted misprints aside) the orthography to be adopted, regardless of all questions as to the correct etymology of the word. As a necessary sequence, it seems to us that all generic names, not actually preoccupied by names spelled in the same way, should be tenable. There is no other certain boundary line between names tenable and names untenable. We propose therefore to regard all generic names as available unless used in zoology earlier and in exactly the same or-

thography. Among American genera of fishes we may therefore use the following, notwithstanding their earlier analogues:

<i>Microstomus</i> for	<i>Cynicoglossus</i> notwithstanding the prior	<i>Microstoma</i> .
<i>Heterodontus</i>	<i>Cestracion</i>	<i>Heterodon</i> .
<i>Lucania</i>	_____	<i>Lucanus</i> .
<i>Thymallus</i>	_____	<i>Thymalus</i> .
<i>Nebria</i>	_____	<i>Nebria</i> .
<i>Cestreus</i> (<i>κεστρευς</i>)	<i>Cynoscion</i>	<i>Cestræus</i> (<i>κεστραῖος</i>).
<i>Xiphidion</i>	<i>Xiphister</i>	<i>Xiphidium</i> .
<i>Amitra</i>	<i>Monomitra</i>	<i>Amitrus</i> .
<i>Scytalina</i>	<i>Scytaliscus</i>	<i>Scytalinus</i> .
<i>Lagochila</i>	<i>Quassilabia</i>	<i>Lagocheilus</i> .
<i>Auchenopterus</i>	<i>Cremnobates</i>	<i>Auchenipterus</i> .
<i>Ophisoma</i>	<i>Congromurana</i>	<i>Ophiosomus</i> .
<i>Leucos</i>	<i>Myloleucus</i>	<i>Leucus</i> .
<i>Pterophryne</i>	<i>Pterophrynoïdes</i>	<i>Pterophrynum</i> .
<i>Scaphirhynchus</i>	<i>Scaphirhynchops</i>	<i>Scaphirhynchus</i> .
<i>Brachirus</i>	<i>Synaptura</i>	<i>Brachyrus</i> .

If *Microstomus* be discarded, the name next in order of date is *Cynicoglossus*.

The following is Bonaparte's definition of *Cynicoglossus* as quoted by Gill (Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1864, 222):

"Secondo è *Cynicoglossus* nob. che come il *Pl. cynoglossus* L. ha la linea laterale retta, la bocca piccola, i denti come quello di sopra [*Platessa*] ma la mascelle iguale, con labbra turgide, e l'ano senza spina."

Later, in his Catalogo Metodico dei Pesci Europei, Bonaparte changes this name from *Cynicoglossus* to *Cynoglossa*, giving the sole species as *Cynoglossa microcephala*, and quoting as its synonym "*Pleuronectes cynoglossus* L. Nilss." showing that his identification of the Linnæan species coincided with that of Nilsson, who at first used the name "*Pleuronectes cynoglossus*" for the present species instead of the species of *Glyptocephalus*. In Bonaparte's Catalogo, *Glyptocephalus* Gottsche is regarded by Bonaparte as synonymous with *Platessa*.

It is thus evident, as Dr. Gill has suggested, that Bonaparte meant to refer to the *Pleuronectes microcephalus* instead of *Pl. cynoglossus*, he "having followed Nilsson in his erroneous identification" of the latter with the former. In farther evidence of this we have the fact that *Cynicoglossus microcephalus* (kitt) has no anal spine, while such a spine is present in the species of *Glyptocephalus*. We would be, therefore, justified in the use of *Cynicoglossus* instead of the later *Brachyprosopon*, if *Microstomus* should be regarded as ineligible on account of the prior name *Microstoma*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF MICROSTOMUS.

- a. Dorsal rays 85 to 93; anal rays 70 to 76. Head very small, $4\frac{2}{3}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$; eyes moderate, about 4 in head; pectorals $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; lat. l. 130; vertebrae $13 + 35 = 48$. Color dull yellowish-brown, body and fins clouded with blackish, KITT, 88.
- aa. Dorsal rays 102; anal rays 85. Head larger, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth nearly 3 in length; eyes large, 3 in. head, opercle above angle, adnate to the shoulder girdle; pectoral short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lat. l. 140; vertebrae $12+40=52$. Olive-brown, blotched on body and fins with darker PACIFICUS, 89.

88. **MICROSTOMUS KITT.**

(THE SMEAR DAB.)

- Rhombus laevis cornubiensis* Jago in Ray, "Syn. Pisc., 162, tab. 1, f. 1."
The Smear Dab Pennant, British Zoology, iii, p. 230, pl. 41, 1776."
Pleuronectes kitt Walbaum, Artedi Piscium, iii, 1792, 120 (after Ray; the description in part confused with that of *Lepidorhombus*).
Pleuronectes kitt Bloch & Schneider, Systema Ichthyologia, 1801, 162 (after Ray).
Pleuronectes microcephalus Donovan, "British Fishes, ii, pl. 42, 1801." Günther, iv, 447.
Steindachner, Ichth. Beitr., viii, 47 (Edinburgh). Day, Fishes Great Britain, ii, 28, pl. 102. Collett, Norges Fiske, 145, and of recent European writers generally.
Platessa microcephala Fleming, British Anim., 198, 1828, and of numerous writers.
Cynoglossa microcephala Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico Pesci Eur., 1845, 48.
Pleuronectes laevis Shaw, Gen'l Zool., iv, 299, 1803.
Pleuronectes quenisi Hölböll, "Bohusläns Fiske, iv, 59."
Pleuronectes quadridens Fabricius, "Kongl. Dansk. Vid. Selsk. Afhandl., i, 39."
Pleuronectes microstomus "Faber, Isis, 1828, 886."
Microstomus latidens Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 150.
Pleuronectes gilli Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, 1868, vii, 40. (Polar Sea, north of Iceland.)

Habitat.—Seas of the north of Europe in rather deep water, south to Cornwall.

This small flounder is rather common in the waters of Northern Europe. It reaches the length of a foot or more, and is said to be excellent as food. We have no specimens at hand, and have therefore relied chiefly on the figure and description given by Dr. Day, in our comparison of this species with *M. pacificus*. Like its congener, *M. pacificus*, this species is often very slimy in life.

This species is recorded by Day, on the authority of Dr. Steindachner, as occurring in Kamtschatka. This reference probably belongs to *M. pacificus*.

The specific name "kitt," given by Walbaum on the authority of Jago's description, seems to be the one which should be adopted for this species. According to Day, the species is still called "kitt" on the coast of Cornwall.

Pleuronectes gilli, as described by Dr. Steindachner, seems to differ from *Microstomus kitt* only in the larger head, which is but $4\frac{2}{5}$ in the length to base of caudal. It is probably not specifically distinct from the latter. Only a single specimen $10\frac{1}{2}$ inches long is known.

89. **MICROSTOMUS PACIFICUS.**

(THE SLIPPERY SOLE.)

- Glyptocephalus pacificus* Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries, 1878-'79, p. 43 (off Point Reyes). Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 86 (San Francisco). Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 188.
Cynicoglossus pacificus Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (Puget Sound, San Francisco, Monterey Bay). Jordan and Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 68 (Seattle). Jordan and Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 838.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of North America, Monterey to Vancouver's Island, and probably northward.

This small flounder abounds in deep water about San Francisco, but comes near the shore farther north. It is exceedingly slimy when first taken. The large specimens are considered excellent as food, the smaller are thrown away. It rarely reaches the weight of a pound.

Genus XXXVIII.—GLYPTOCEPHALUS.

Glyptocephalus Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 156 (*saxicola* = *cynoglossus*).

TYPE: *Glyptocephalus saxicola* Gottsche = *Pleuronectes cynoglossus* L.

This genus is one of the most strongly marked in the family, being distinguished from most of the genera by the greatly increased number of vertebræ, and from all of them by the remarkable cavernous structure of the bones of the head.

There are two species known, found in the deep waters of the northern seas, the one in the Pacific, the other in the Atlantic.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF GLYPTOCEPHALUS.

- a. Pectoral fins very short, not falcate, that of right side about half length of head.
Eyes large, about 3 in head, close together. Head 5 in length, depth $2\frac{1}{4}$ ($2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3). D. 101 to 111. A. 87 to 99. Lat. 1. 125. Vertebrae 58. Color grayish-brown; fins with dark spots; tip of pectoral dusky above CYNOGLOSSUS, 90.
- aa. Pectoral fin of colored side falcate, longer than head. Eyes large, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head, close together. Head $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length, depth 3. D. 94 to 106; A. 79 to 89; Lat. 1. 138. Vertebrae $13 + 52 = 65$. Color uniform brown, the fins darker, the blind side dusted with dark points ZACHIRUS, 91.

90. GLYPTOCEPHALUS CYNOGLOSSUS.

(THE CRAIG FLUKE.) •

[Plate XIX.]

Pleuronectes, sp., Gronow, Museum Ichthyol., 1, iv, 39, &c. (Belgium.)

Pleuronectes cynoglossus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 269 (after Gronow). Günther, iv, 449. Day, Fishes Great Britain, ii, 30, pl. 103. (Lofoten, Finmark) (and of European writers generally.)

Glyptocephalus cynoglossus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 360, 1873. Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, p. 21. (Salem, Mass.; Halifax; La Have Bank; Bedford Basin, Halifax; Eastport, Me.) Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 337. (Deep sea, south coast New England.) Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 475. (Deep sea, New England coast.) Collett, Norske Nord-Havs Expd., 1880, p. 150. (Lofoten; Tana Fjord, Finmark.) Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zoology, xix, 1883, 195. (Station 343.) Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 838. Goode, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884.

Solea cynoglossa Rafinesque, Indice di Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 53 (based on the Pole or *Cynoglossum* of Rondelet).

Platesa pola Cuvier (Règne Animal, 1817). Lacépède, Hist. Nat., Poiss., edition of 1832, vi, 50, and of several authors.

Pleuronectes saxicola Faber, "Tidsskr. f. Naturv., 5 B., 244, 1828."

Glyptocephalus saxicola Gottsche, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1835, 156.

Platesa saxicola Kröyer, "Danmark's Fiske, 1843, 338."

Pleuronectes nigromanus Nilsson, "Prodr. Ichth. Scand., 1832, 55."

Platessa elongata Yarrell, "Supplement Brit. Fish., 1839."

Pleuronectes elongatus Günther, iv, 450 (copied).

Glyptocephalus elongatus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1873, 362.

Glyptocephalus acadianus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1873, 360 (Nova Scotia).

Habitat.—North Atlantic, chiefly in deep water, south to Cape Cod and France.

This species is found in rather deep water on sandy bottoms. It reaches a length of 12 to 18 inches. It is considered a fair food-fish.

The nominal species, *acadianus* and *elongatus*, have been shown by Goode and Bean to be identical with *cynoglossus*. Beyond this the synonymy needs no special remarks.

This flounder has been taken in great numbers with the beam trawl in deep water off our New England coast. It is pronounced by the U. S. Fish Commission to be not inferior as a food-fish to the European sole.

91. GLYPTOCEPHALUS ZACHIRUS.

Glyptocephalus zachirus Lockington, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, p. 88 (San Francisco).
 Lockington, Rep. Com. Fisheries California, 1878-'79, p. 42 (off Point Reyes).
 Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, p. 453 (San Francisco; Monterey Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, p. 68 (San Francisco; Monterey). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, p. 838. Jordan, Nat. Hist. Aquat. Anim., 1884, 188 (deep waters about San Francisco).

Habitat.—Deep waters of the Northern Pacific; thus far known only from about San Francisco.

This species is a thin, dry flounder, reaching a length of something over a foot. It is taken in the sweep-nets in deep water about San Francisco, and thus far has been known from no other locality. It is readily known by its long pectoral fin.

Genus XXXIX.—SOLEA.

Solea Klein, Pisces (non-binomial).

Solea Quensel, Vet. Akad. Handl., 1806, 230 (*solea*).

Pegusa Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., 1862. iv, 462 (*aurantiaca*).

TYPE: *Solea vulgaris* Quensel = *Pleuronectes solea* L.

As now understood by us, this genus includes some six or seven species of soles, most of them belonging to the European fauna. The genus is distinguished especially in the group to which it belongs by the elongate body, this elongation being connected with a much increased number of vertebræ. The soles of this genus are the only ones having much value as food. They reach a considerably larger size than any others of the species found in America or Europe, and as food-fishes they are especially excellent. The European sole (*Solea solea*) is the most highly esteemed of them all.

The subgenus *Pegusa* cannot well be separated from the true soles, as *Solea kleini* is intermediate between the two groups.

In the waters of the East Indies the related genus *Pardachirus* Günther (= *Achirus* Kaup, not Cuvier) takes the place of *Solea*. Its species

are destitute of pectoral fins. There is a conspicuous pore at the base of each ray of the dorsal and anal, and on the blind side there is an accessory half lateral line.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF SOLEA.

- a. Nostril of blind side simple, not forming a distinct tube, its edge scantily fringed; black spot on pectoral fin at its tip. (*Solea*)
- b. Pectoral of eyed side about one-third length of head, that of blind side a very little shorter; eyes well separated, the upper considerably in advance of lower; scales small, ctenoid on both sides; those of blind side of head with few fringes; color dark brown, with darker mottlings, rarely plain brown, immaculate (var. *cineraria*); vertical fins with darker edgings; tip of pectoral jet black. D. 73 to 80; A. 61 to 69; lat. l. 140 to 150. Vertebræ 9 + 40 = 49. Head, 3 in length; depth, about 4. *SOLEA*, 92.
- bb. [Pectoral of eyed side less than one-third length of head, that of blind side similar; eyes well separated; scales small, ctenoid on both sides; color clear brown, thickly covered with pale and dark brown spots and dots; fins similarly spotted; vertical fins without dark edgings; tip of pectoral black. D. 80 to 92; A. 75 to 76; lat. l. 128 to 150. Head, 4½ in length; depth, 2¾.] (*Steindachner*) *CAPELLONIS*, 93.
- bbb. [Pectoral of eyed side as long as snout to eye. Form elongate; lower jaw included; teeth sharp, in three rows. Posterior nostril concealed; anterior in a short tube; color uniform blackish. D. 84. A. 65. P. 8. V. 4. C. 21.] (*Kaup*) *BRASILIENSIS*,* 94.
- aa. Nostril of blind side with its margin produced into a tube, which is more or less conspicuously fringed. (*Pegusa* Günther.)
- c. Scales of blind side cycloid; nasal tube moderate, its fringes few and short; scales of blind side of head with few fringes; pectoral fin with its black ocellus near the base, the fin short, that of the eyed side not one-third length of head. Eye rather large, the interorbital space moderate; scales rather small, those on the blind side cycloid. Pectoral fin black at base, its tip and margin whitish; coloration of body subject to many variations, usually gray, profusely dotted and speckled with black and whitish, sometimes very finely mottled and sometimes nearly plain; vertical fins broadly edged with black. Head, 4¾; depth, 3½. D. 74 to 82; A. 59 to 64; lat. l. 100 to 110. Vertebræ, 10 + 38 = 48 *KLEINI*, 95.
- cc. Scales of left side of body ctenoid; nasal tube broad, well fringed, scales of eyed side with fringes; black ocellus on pectoral near the tip of the fin.
- d. [Fringes of left nostril comparatively few, the margin of the nostril very broad; pectoral fin comparatively long, about 2½ in head, the black ocellus on its posterior half; eye small, its diameter equal to the interorbital space; scales small; color yellowish, marbled with round brownish blotches, and speckled with black. Head 5½; depth 2¾. Dorsal 81 to 89; anal 66 to 68. Lat. l. 117. Vertebræ 46.] (*Günther*: *Steindachner*) *AURANTIACA*, 96.
- dd. Fringes of left nostril very numerous; longer than the diameter of the nasal tube.
- e. Scales of lateral line 110 to 140.
- f. [Dorsal rays 80 to 89; anal rays 61 to 68. Lat. l. 120 to 140. Pectoral fin 2 to 2½ in head. Depth 3 in length. Head 5. Color ashy gray with a dark brown point at the base of each scale; vertical fins with dark dots; pectoral with a large round black spot near its tip, this spot edged with paler anteriorly.] (*Steindachner*) *LASCARIS*, 97.

* D. 96; A. 84. Head 6 in length; depth 3; middle of pectoral and end of caudal black, according to Agassiz. Possibly two species are confounded under this name.

- ff.* [Dorsal rays 75 to 76; anal rays 59 to 61. Lat. l. 112 to 118; pectoral fins about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; depth $2\frac{2}{3}$. Head $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; color brown, with numerous obscure dusky cloudings; pectoral with a black ocellus in the middle of its posterior half.] (*Steindachner: Günther*) THEOPHILA, 98.
ee. [Scales in lateral line 90 to 95; D. 83 or 84. A. 65. Head $5\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. Eye 5 in head, equal to interorbital width; nasal tube of left side long and much fringed; lips not fringed; blind side of head with many fringes; right pectoral 3 in head. Color grayish, very much mottled and spotted on body and fins; base of caudal dark; pectoral black, edged with paler.] (*Kner*) VARIOLOSA, 99.

92. SOLEA SOLEA.

(THE COMMON SOLE.)

[Plates XX and XXI.]

Pleuronectes solea Linnaeus, Systema Naturæ, ed. x, 1758, 270 (and of the earlier copyists).

Solea vulgaris Quensel, Vet. Akad. Handl., 1806, 230, and of nearly all later writers.

Solea buglossa Raspinesque, Indice, 1810, 45.

Solea cinerea Guichenot, Explor. Alger., Poiss., 1850, 106 (plain brown variety).

Solea angulosa Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 95. (Algiers; Rochelle) (= *P. angulata*, MSS. Paris Museum.)

Solea azevia Capello, Journ. Acad. Sci., Lisboa, i, 1867, 166, fig. 2 (plain brown variety).

Solea vulgaris var. *azevia* Steindachner, Ichthyol. Berichte, vi, 1868, 54, with plate.

Solea linnæi Malm, Bohusläns Fauna, 532 (about 1860).

Habitat—All coasts of Europe, except the extreme north.

This species is the famous sole of Europe, one of the most prized of all food-fishes. It abounds on almost all coasts of central and southern Europe, preferring sandy or gravelly shores, and it is usually captured, according to Dr. Day, with the trawl. It usually reaches a length of 12 to 18 inches.

No specimens of the European sole have yet been taken on the American coasts. Several attempts have been made by the United States Fish Commission to introduce the species into our waters, but thus far without evident success.

The *Solea azevia* of Capello is considered by Steindachner to be an unspotted variety of the common sole. The *Solea cinerea*, scarcely described by Guichenot, seems to be the same form.

Solea angulosa Kaup is said to have D. 84; A. 71; P. 7; V. 7-6; C. 19; the pectoral as long as the distance from its root to the lower eye. It may be a common sole, with the number of fin-rays slightly increased.

93. SOLEA CAPELLONIS.

Solea capellonis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Berichte, vi, 56, 1868 (with plate) (Gibraltar; Dalmatia).

Habitat—Mediterranean Sea.

This species is evidently very closely related to the common sole, of which, it seems to us, it may be a mere local variety, with unusually

variegated coloration. Steindachner, however, compares it with *Solea kleini*, which it much resembles in color, but from which it differs in numerous respects. We have not seen the species.

94. SOLEA BRASILIENSIS.

Solea brasiliensis (Cuvier MSS.) Agassiz, Spix Pisc. Brasil., 1829, 87 (Brazil). Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 95 (Montevideo).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

We know this species only from the descriptions of Agassiz and Kaup. These two accounts do not agree very well and may refer to different fishes. It would appear to be very close to the European sole. None of the collections from Brazil in the museum at Cambridge contain any species of *Solea*.

95. SOLEA KLEINI.

Rhombus kleinii Risso, "Europe Méridionale," iii, 1826, 255."

Solea kleinii Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., 1862, iv, 464, and of numerous writers.

Solea luctuosa Guichenot, Explor. Algérie, Poissons, 1850, 107.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

This species is subject to great variations in color, some of our specimens being excessively spotted, others almost plain. In all cases, however, the coloration of the pectoral is distinctive. Our specimens are from Venice and from Palermo.

96. SOLEA AURANTIACA.

(THE LEMON SOLE.)

Solea aurantiaca Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 467.

Habitat.—Coasts of Europe, north to England.

We have not seen this species. According to Dr. Day it is identical with *Pleuronectes nasutus* Pallas, and he regards both as the same as the original *Pleuronectes lascaris* Risso. Day therefore adopts for the Lemon Sole the name of *Solea lascaris*. Knowing none of these fishes from autopsy we can have no opinion of value in this matter, but it would seem to us that the *Solea aurantiaca* of Günther and also the *Pl. lascaris* of Risso correspond better to the species called *lascaris* in the present paper than to the *Pleuronectes nasutus* of Pallas, which is the *Solea theophaela* of this paper.

97. SOLEA LASCARIS.

Pleuronectes lascaris Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, p. 311, tab. 7, f. 32.

Solea lascaris Günther, iv, 467. Steindachner, Ichth. Berichte, vi, 1868, 59.

Rhombus polus Risso, "Europe Méridionale," iii, 249," 1826 (not *Pleuronectes polus* Cuvier).

Solea scriba Valenciennes, Webb & Berthelot, Iles Canaries, Poissons, 84, pl. 18, f. 3.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We have not seen this species, and we take the above synonymy from Günther. According to Dr. Day the name *lascaris* belongs to *Solea aurantiaca*. This species should stand in that case, perhaps, as *Solea scriba*.

98. SOLEA THEOPHILA.

Pleuronectes theophilus Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 313.

Pleuronectes nasutus Pallas, Zoogr. Rosso-Asiatica, iii, 1811, 427.

Solea nasuta Steindachner, l. c., 58.

Solea impar Bennett, "Proc. Comm. Soc. Zool., i, 147," 1831. Günther, iv, 468.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We do not know this species. According to Dr. Day it is identical with *Solea aurantiaca*, and should receive the name of *Solea lascaris*. Notwithstanding the close relation of *S. theophila* and *S. aurantiaca*, it would seem that the two are different, as the number of fin-rays is considerably smaller in the present species than in *S. aurantiaca*, or than in the species called by us *S. lascaris*.

The Italian naturalists should be able to settle these questions of synonymy. Judging from the literature alone, these three species would appear to be valid. *S. aurantiaca* would seem to be distinguished by the little development of its nasal fringes, its fin-rays being "D. 81 to 89; A. 66 to 68." *S. lascaris* has the nostril with a wreath of fringes and the fin-rays substantially similar, and *S. theophila* (=*nasuta*=*impar*) has the nostril well fringed and the fin-rays fewer; "D. 75 to 76; A. 59 to 61."

Risso says of his *Solea lascaris* that its dorsal rays are 85, anal 68. This agrees with our *S. lascaris*, which is that of Günther, and differs from our *theophila*, the *impar* of Günther, with which Day has identified Risso's *lascaris*.

Risso further says that his *Solea theophila* (named for M. Théophile Rainaut, of Sospello) has 75 dorsal and 64 anal rays. This corresponds with the *Solea impar* of Günther, and as the name *theophila* has priority over *impar* we have adopted it. Possibly all three are forms of a single species, *Solea lascaris* Risso.

99. SOLEA VARIOLOSA.

Solea variolosa Kuer, Novara Fische, 1869, 289 (Rio Janeiro).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

This species is known to us from the account given by Professor Kner.

Genus XL.—MONOCHIRUS.

Monochirus Rafinesque, "Précis des Découvertes Semiologiques, 1814" (*hispidus*) (*fide* Bonaparte).

Monochirus Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. i, 1817 (*microchirus*). (Not of Rafinesque.)

Monochir Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1828 (*microchir*). (Modified orthography of *Monochirus*.)

Monochirus Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Fishes, ii, 1839, 303 (*linguatula*).

Microchirus Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico dei Pesci Europei, 1845-'50 (after Swainson: *lingula*).

Buglossus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 462 (*variegata*).

Monochir Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 462 (*monochir*).

Quenselia Jordan, Subgenus novum (*ocellata*).

TYPE: *Monochirus hispidus* Rafinesque.

This small group of European soles seems to be worthy of generic distinction from *Solea*, not so much from the reduction of the pectoral fins as on account of the reduced number of vertebræ, which forms a step in the direction of the genus *Achirus*.

The species are, however, much more nearly related to *Solea* than to *Achirus*. Three subgeneric groups are included under the head of *Monochirus* as understood by us, and these might perhaps with no great impropriety be taken as distinct genera. We think it better, however, to place all together in one group, for which the name of *Monochirus* has priority. We have not seen the paper of Rafinesque in which this name is said to occur, but have taken our quotation from Bonaparte.

For the second subgenus, the same name, *Monochirus*, was proposed by Cuvier, but this is antedated by *Monochirus* of Rafinesque. The name *Microchirus* given by Bonaparte to the same group has priority over Günther's name *Buglossus*. For the third group, we have suggested the new name *Quenselia* in honor of the Swedish naturalist who first separated the soles generically from the flounders.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF MONOCHIRUS.

- a. Vertebrae 37 to 40; scales normal, strongly ctenoid.
- b. Pectoral of both sides well developed, that of the eyed side not quite half head, that of blind side not quite a third; vertebrae 37. (*Quenselia* Jordan.)
 - c. Interorbital space very narrow, the eyelids thick, covered with rough scales; blind side of head with conspicuous fringes; scales sub-villous, the spinules conspicuous, though less so than in *Monochirus hispidus*; color dark gray, with some vague dusky blotches behind the gill opening; 4 round jet-black spots ocellated with white and about as large as eye disposed in a quadrangle behind the middle of the body; a black bar across base of caudal; fins dusky; pectoral mostly blackish. Vertebrae $9+28=37$. Head 4 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 66 to 67. A. 52 to 54. P. 5-5. Lat. I. 70 to 75 *OCELLATUS*, 100.
 - bb. Pectoral fin of blind side minute, that of eyed side small, not twice as long as eye. (*Microchirus* Bonaparte.)
 - d. Scales in the lateral line 55 to 60. Depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head $4\frac{1}{2}$; color nearly uniform brownish, sometimes spotted with darker; a few dark spots on dorsal and anal fins, each involving part or all of the membrane of about every fourth ray; pectoral mostly black, its length not quite half more than that of eye *LUTEUS*, 101.
 - dd. Scales in the lateral line 75 to 80. D. 63 to 73. A. 53 to 57. P. 5-3. Vertebrae, $10+30=40$. Depth 3 in length; head $4\frac{1}{2}$; color brownish gray, with broad irregular dark cross-bands which are darkest on the dorsal and anal fins; pectoral partly dusky, its length not greater than that of eye.

VARIEGATUS, 102.

ddd. [Scales very small, 112 to 118; D. 72 to 79; A. 56 to 62. Depth, $2\frac{3}{4}$; head, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; colors of *Monochirus luteus*, each sixth or seventh ray of dorsal and anal blackish brown; caudal with brown spots; posterior half of dorsal and anal with narrow, dark brown cross-spots.] (*Steindachner*)

MINUTUS, 103.

aa. Vertebræ 34; pectoral fin of eyed side more than half length of head, that of blind side wanting; scales sub-concave, elongate, and with the free margin somewhat erected; each scale with several long spinules, giving the body a villous appearance (as in *Phrynorombus*); (*Monochirus*).

e. Scales of blind side with shorter spinules; scales on head slightly reduced; eyes rather large, with thick scaly eyelids; head $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. 52 ("56 to 61," *Günther*). A. 41 (44 to 49, *Günther*). P. about 7; lat. l. 54 (63, *Günther*). Vertebræ $9 + 25 = 34$. Color, brown with irregular dark marblings on body and fins; dorsal and anal mostly dark; caudal abruptly pale, with light brownish cross-streaks.....HISPIDUS, 104.

100. MONOCHIRUS OCCELLATUS.

Pleuronectes ocellatus Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 269 ("Surinam").

Solea ocellata *Günther*, iv, 465.

Quenselia ocellata *Jordan*, MSS.

Pleuronectes pegusa Lacépède, Hist. Nat., Poiss., iv, 639, 1803.

Pleuronectes rondeleti Shaw, Gen'l Zool., iv, 307, 1803.

Solea oculata Risso, Europe Méridionale, iii, 248, 1826, and of numerous writers.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea; Mâdeira Islands.

Our specimens of this pretty species are from Palermo, where they were collected by Professor Doderlein.

This species, with some other African and Asiatic species, marks a transition between the typical forms of *Monochirus* to those of *Solea*. It may be regarded as forming the type of a new subgenus for which the name *Quenselia* is suggested.

101. MONOCHIRUS LUTEUS.

Pleuronectes luteus Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 312.

Monochirus luteus Costa, "Fauna Napoli, ii, 49."

Solea lutea *Günther*, iv, 469, 1862, and of most recent writers.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

Our numerous specimens of this species were collected by Professor Doderlein at Palermo, and by Professor Jordan at Venice.

102. MONOCHIRUS VARIEGATUS.

Pleuronectes variegatus Donovan, British Fishes, 1801, pl. 117.

Solea variegata *Günther*, iv, 469.

Pleuronectes microchirus Delaroche, Ann. Mus., xiii, 356, f. 2, 1809.

Pleuronectes mangili Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 255.

Pleuronectes lingula "Hamner in Pennant, Brit. Zool., ed. of 1812, iii, 313, pl. 48."

Pleuronectes fasciatus Naccari, "Giornale Fis. Pav., iii, Adr. Ittiol., 9, 1822."

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

Our specimens of this species were collected at Palermo by Professor Doderlein. Most of the synonymy given above is copied from *Günther* and Bonaparte, and has not been verified by us.

103. MONOCHIRUS MINUTUS.

Monochirus minutus Parnell, Mag. Zool. and Bot., i, 527, 1837.

Solea minuta Günther, iv, 470. Steindachner, Ichth. Berichte, vi, 1868, 61.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We know nothing of this species. According to Dr. Day, it is identical with *Monochirus luteus*. Steindachner, however, regards the two as distinct, and describes *M. minutus* as having 112 to 118 scales in the lateral line—a number nearly double that found in his specimens as well as in our specimens of *M. luteus*. If this count is correct, the two species must be different.

104. MONOCHIRUS HISPIDUS.

Pleuronectes pegusa Risso, Ichth. Nice, 1810, 310 (not of Lacépède).

Monochirus hispidus Rafinesque, "Précis des Découvertes 1814" (fide Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico, 1845, 50).

Solea monochir Bonaparte, "Fauna Italica," about 1840. Günther, iv, 470, 1862.

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

Our specimens of this curious species are from Palermo and from Venice, the former collected by Professor Doderlein, the latter by Dr. Jordan.

Genus XLI.—ACHIRUS.

Achirus Lacépède, Hist. Nat., Poiss., iv, 659, 1803 (*fasciatus*, etc.).

Achirus Cuvier, Règne Animal, 1828, (restriction to *fasciatus*, etc.).

Trinectes Rafinesque, Atlantic Journal and Friend of Knowledge, i, 1832 (*scabra*).

Grammichthys Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 94 (*lineatus*, *fasciatus*) (*Achirus* being restricted to *Pardachirus barbatus*, etc.).

Monochirus Kaup, l. c. (*maculipinnis*).

?*Aseraggodes* Kaup, l. c., 1858, 103 (*guttulata*).

Baiostoma Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 413 (*brachiale*).

Bæostoma Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. A., 1882, 965 (amended orthography).

TYPE: *Achirus fasciatus* Lacépède.

This strongly-marked genus contains numerous species, all very closely related, and nearly all American. It has been united by Dr. Günther with *Solea*, but apparently for no good reason, as the number of vertebræ is very much less than in the European soles, and the right ventral fin is decurrent along the abdomen and united with the anal in the American soles, while it is short and wholly free in all the European forms. It is also worth noticing that the name *Achirus* is prior in date to that of *Solea*. The species with rudimentary pectoral fins have been set apart by Dr. Bean to form the genus *Baiostoma*, but the very slight development of these organs in some of the species, and the evidently very close relationship of them all, leads us to regard *Baiostoma* as a subgenus only. If we follow Kaup in restricting the name *Achirus* to the Asiatic group called *Pardachirus*, the present genus would receive the name of *Trinectes*. It seems to us that both Lacépède

and Cuvier regarded the species called by us *fasciatus* as the type of their genus *Achirus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ACHIRUS.*

- a. Pectoral fins small; present at least on the right side. (*Baiostoma* Beau.)
- b. Pectoral fin present on both sides, that of the left side rudimentary, of a single ray; that of the eyed side with about 3.
- c. [Dorsal rays 60 to 67; anal rays about 48; lat. 1.80; depth 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in length; color brownish, irregularly spotted with darker, and with about 10 black vertical lines crossing the lateral line.] (Günther) ACHIRUS, 105.
- cc. Dorsal rays 53 to 57; anal rays 40 to 42; lat. 1.75 to 80; depth 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in length; scales smaller and less rough than usual in this genus, those of nape scarcely enlarged on eyed side, those of blind side much fringed; scales of colored side with scattered, hair-like appendages, some black, others pale; color oliveaceous; head, body, dorsal, and anal fins covered with a network of dark lines; traces of about 8 dark cross-streaks sometimes present; caudal fin yellowish, nearly plain, or with a few dark dots or reticulations; its base dusky. Vertebrae 8 + 20 = 28 INSCRIPTUS, 106.
- bb. Pectoral of right side only present.
- d. Dorsal rays 65 to 66; anal rays 48 to 51.
- e. Pectoral well developed, with about 6 rays. Scales of eyed side without hair-like filaments; scales of lateral line 77 to 80; chin little prominent; dorsal rays 65; anal rays 51; depth 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head 3 $\frac{1}{2}$; right lower lip fringed. Color brownish, with 9 or 10 narrow blackish cross-lines; small rounded blackish spots on the membranes of each of the vertical fins, much as in *A. lineatus* KUNZINGERI, 107.
- ee. Pectoral fin small, its rays about 2 in number; scales of eyed side with numerous hair-like filaments; scales of lateral line about 70; chin prominent, protruding beyond upper jaw; D. 66, A. 48 to 50; depth 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ in length; pectoral black, not much longer than eye; eyes rather large, the upper not in advance of lower; color brown, with traces of dark cross-bands; numerous irregular blackish clouds and blotches on the body and fins; no small spots MENTALIS, 108.
- dd. Dorsal rays, 50 to 58; anal rays, 35 to 47.
- f. Pectoral fin of 4 to 6 rays, considerably longer than eye; body with 8 to 10 narrow vertical dark bars, these sometimes obsolete with age.
- g. Vertical fins, all with round dark spots, these usually especially distinct on the caudal fin; some of the scales of eyed side with black, hair-like appendages; pectoral fin with 5 or 6 rays, about 3 in head; its length equal to that from outer edge of one eye to outer edge of another; head 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth about 1 $\frac{1}{2}$; color brown, the young spotted with whitish, the adult sometimes with darker; body with about 8 narrow vertical cross-streaks of blackish. LINEATUS, 109.
- x. Dorsal rays 49 to 58; anal rays 38 to 44; scales 70 to 85.

Var. *lineatus*, 109 (a).

* Besides the species here mentioned, another, *Achirus lorentzi* Weyenbergh (Algunos Nuevos Pescados del Museo Nacional y Algunas Noticias Ictiologicas 1877, 13, pl. 1, f. 1—Buenos Ayres), has been described from Santa Fé, Uruguay. We have not seen the description.

xx. Dorsal rays 50 to 51; anal rays 35 to 37.

y. Scales 75 to 77 *Var. brachialis*, 109 (b).

yy. Scales 55 to 67 *Var. comifer*, 109 (c).

gg. Vertical fins dark, without distinct markings. Body broad, ovate, the depth about $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length; pectoral fin with 4 rays; scales of right side with numerous black hair-like appendages; color brownish, with 8 or 9 narrow vertical black bars; fins dark, without distinct markings; D. 56, A. 42, lat. 1. 70 *MAZATLANUS*, 110.

ff. Pectoral fins of 2 or 3 rays, about as long as eye.

h. Body with 6 to 12 narrow dark bands; these sometimes obsolete.

i. [Body rather narrowly ovate, its depth $1\frac{5}{6}$ in length; pectoral fin very small, of about 2 rays, not much longer than eye; color brownish olive, with six pairs of deep brown vertical lines extending on the dorsal and anal fins. D. 58, A. 44, lat. 1. 85.] (*Günther*) *FONSECENSIS*, 111.

ii. Body broadly ovate; the depth $1\frac{2}{3}$ in length; pectoral as long as eye; fringes on lip of right side, few and small, inconspicuous; scales on blind side moderately enlarged; hair-like appendages on scales few or none; D. 56. A. about 39. Scales about 76; color brown, finely mottled and speckled with darker, and with about a dozen narrow, very faint cross-streaks; fins with similar dark spots; scales all finely dotted under the lens *PUNCTIFER*, 112.

hh. Body with very numerous (20 to 40) black cross-bands, which are as broad as the interspaces.

j. [Blind side of snout with few fringes; pectoral rays 3; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length; D. 55, A. 48, lat. 1. 80. Color grayish; head, body, and fins with numerous blackish, irregular wavy bands, broader than the interspaces; caudal fin with deep black spots.] (*Günther*) *SCUTUM*, 113.

jj. Blind side of head profusely covered with fringes; scales on body very rough, those of the eyed side of head enlarged and with long spinules; numerous patches on body covered with appendages like short, coarse black hairs; lower lip with fringes on eyed side nearly half as long as eye; pectoral small, not longer than eye, which is rather large, about 5 in head; lower jaw included; upper eye largest and much advanced; anterior rays of dorsal, with fringes of cirri. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$ in length; depth $1\frac{1}{4}$; D. 55, A. 47. Scales 77 to 80. Color dark-brown, with numerous (about 40) close-set, straight, black cross-bars, each about as wide as the interspaces; vertical fins, with about three elongate black spots on the membrane between each pair of rays.

GARMANI, 114.

aa. Pectoral fins wholly wanting. (*Achirus*.)

k. [Dorsal rays 46; anal rays 33; right lower lip with serrated fringes; nostril in a fringed tube; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head 3; color brown, head and body with numerous large, rounded, or kidney-shaped white spots, edged with dark brown. Lat. 1. 70.] (*Günther*) *FIMBRIATUS*, 115.

kk. Dorsal rays 50 to 55; anal rays 37 to 46; right lower lip fringed; left nostril with some fringes; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head 4; none of the scales of eyed side with hair-like appendages; color dusky olive, more or less mottled and with about eight dark vertical stripes, these varying very much

- in width and in number; vertical fins with the membrane of every second or third pair of rays blackish, besides dark cloudings at base of fin; caudal with numerous longitudinally oblong spots; blind side often with round, dark spots, especially in northern specimens, usually immaculate in southern ones (var. *browni*). Lat. 1. 66 to 75; vertebræ 8 + 20 = 28. **FASCIATUS**, 116.
- kkk.* Dorsal rays 59 or 60; anal rays 41 to 45.
- i.* [Snout and chin without evident fringe or barbel; right lower lip fringed; head 4 in length; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$; D. 59, A. 45; scales 63 to 65; color brown; about 12 dark cross-bands on head and body; between these faint, paler cross-bands, which form spots on dorsal and anal; caudal similarly spotted, the spots forming obscure cross-bands. (*Steindachner*).... **PANAMENSIS**, 117.
- ii.* Snout with a fringe-like barbel near its tip, as long as eye; a shorter one on the chin; eyed side with some patches of black hairs; scales of blind side of head scarcely enlarged or fringed; scales small, not very rough; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $1\frac{1}{2}$. D. 60, A. 41; scales 80; color pale, the eyed side with small scattered black points and blotches of varying size; a few narrow obscure dark cross-streaks; blind side immaculate.... **JENYNSI**, 118.

105. ACHIRUS ACHIRUS.

Pleuronectes oculis dextris, corpore glabro, pinnis pectoralibus nullis Gronow, Museum, i, No. 42. (Surinam.)

Pleuronectes achirus Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 268 (based on Gronow).

Solea gronovii Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 472 (Surinam).

Achirus gronovii Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 602. (Name only.)

Habitat.—Coasts of Guiana.

We know this species only from Dr. Günther's description. We place *Achirus gronovii* in the synonymy of the Linnæan species *Pleuronectes achirus*. *Pleuronectes achirus* is based on a description by Gronow of some *Achirus* from Surinam. Gronow's fish agrees with the present species in having 60 dorsal rays and 48 anal rays, in being brown, with transverse black bands, with dark spots on the fins, as well as in coming from Surinam. But Gronow explicitly denies the presence of pectorals, and the present species has rudimentary pectoral fins on both sides. Probably these were overlooked by Gronow, and as no other species found in the same region has so large a number of rays, we feel justified in the use of the name *Achirus achirus* for this species.

106. ACHIRUS INSCRIPTUS.

Achirus inscriptus Gosse, Nat. Sojourn Jamaica, 52, pl. 1, f. 4, 1851 (Jamaica).
Jordau, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 143 (Key West).

Solea inscripta Günther, iv, 1862, 473 (Jamaica).

Monochir reticulatus Poey, Memorias, ii, 1861, 317 (Cuba); Synopsis, 409; Enumeratio, 139.

Solea reticulata Günther, iv, 472 (copied).

Bæostoma reticulatum Bean & Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 152 (Jamaica).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna, north to Key West.

This species is known to us from numerous specimens taken by Dr. Jordan at Key West, and from specimens from Hayti, in the museum at Cambridge. These specimens belong undoubtedly to the species called *reticulatus* by Poeuy, and this is apparently not different from the *inscriptus* of Gosse, as the agreement with the latter is even closer than with the former description.

107. ACHIRUS KLUNZINGERI.

Solea klunzingeri Steindachner, Zur Fische des Canea und der Flüsse bei Guayaquil, 1879, 44 (Guayaquil).

Achirus klunzingeri Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 391 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America. Panama to Guayaquil.

This species is known from Dr. Steindachner's description. A specimen, since destroyed, was obtained by Professor Gilbert at Panama.

108. ACHIRUS MENTALIS.

Solea mentalis Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 475, 1862 (Para).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

This species is known to us from a specimen, 3 inches long (No. 11449, Mus. Comp. Zool.). It was obtained at Para.

109. ACHIRUS LINEATUS.

a. Var. *lineatus*.

Pleuronectes fuscus subrotundus glaber "Brown, Jamaica, 445" (Jamaica).

Passer lineis transversis notatus Sloane, Jamaica, 2, 77, pl. 246, f. 2 (Jamaica).

Pleuronectes lineatus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 1758, 268 (based on Brown and Sloane; not of ed. xii, which is *Achirus fasciatus*).

Monochir lineatus Quoy & Gaimard, Voy. Uranie, Zool., 238, 1824 (Rio Janeiro, D. 52, A. 42).

Achirus lineatus D'Orbigny, Voyage Amér. Merid. Poiss., pl. 16, f. 2, 1847 (Cayenne).

Monochir maculipinnis Agassiz, Spix Pisc. Brasil., 88, pl. 49, 1829 (Brazil). Poeuy, Synopsis, 1868, 409 (Cuba).

Solea maculipinnis Günther, iv, 473 (Cuba, Jamaica, Brazil). Kner, Novara Fische, iii, 289 (Rio Janeiro).

Achirus maculipinnis Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 602 (name only).

b. Var. *brachialis*.

Baiostoma brachialis Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 413 (South Florida).

Baestoma brachiale Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 965 (copied).

Achirus brachialis Jordan, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1883. (Egmont Key.) Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 149.

c. Var. *comifer*.

Achirus comifer Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 31, 143 (Key West).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna—Key West, and Egmont Key to Uruguay.

The *Pleuronectes lineatus* of the tenth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* is based wholly on the description of Brown and the figure and descrip-

tion of Sloane in their works on Jamaica. It is very evident from Sloane's figure that the species he had in view was the *Achirus maculipinnis*. So far as we know, but two species of *Achirus* (*inscriptus* and *maculipinnis*) are found in the waters of the Antilles. There seems to be, then, no doubt that the *maculipinnis* of Agassiz is the original *Pleuronectes lineatus* of Linnaeus. If it be so, it must stand as *Achirus lineatus*.

The *Pleuronectes lineatus* of the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* is described from a fish sent from Charleston by Dr. Garden. This is *Achirus fasciatus*.

We have placed the Florida species, *comifer* and *brachialis*, in the synonymy of *lineatus*. They differ from the latter only in the slightly smaller numbers of the scales and fin-rays.

The following table shows our count of a number of specimens from different localities:

Locality.	D.	A.	Scales.
Key West.....	(<i>comifer</i>)	50	35
Pensacola.....	(<i>brachialis</i>)	51	37
Cienfuegos.....	(<i>lineatus</i>)	54	43
Rio Janeiro.....	(<i>maculipinnis</i>)	57	42
Do.....	(<i>maculipinnis</i>)	54	44
Rio Grande do Sul.....	(<i>maculipinnis</i>)	49	38
Coary.....	(<i>maculipinnis</i>)	53	40
Manacapuru.....	(<i>maculipinnis</i>)	55	42

It is evident from this table that neither the fin-rays nor the scales form characters by which the subspecies can be absolutely distinguished. It is evident also, from the examination of large series of specimens, that the coloration is subject to very great variations—as great as in *Achirus fasciatus*. In some of these the caudal is dark and immaculate, in others pale and usually profusely spotted. In some the ground color is nearly plain blackish, in others it is pale, usually with narrow dark cross-bands, but sometimes closely spotted everywhere.

The specimens examined by us are from Pensacola and Egmont Key (*brachialis*), Key West (*comifer*), Cienfuegos (Cuba, Poey), Coary, Teffy, Tapajos, Porto Alegre, Pernambuco, Cannarivieras, Manacapuru, Porto do Moz, Rio Grande do Sul, Rio Janeiro, San Matheo, Rosario, Itabapuana, Obidos, Xingu, Gurupa, Jutaby, Curuça, Parà, Bahia, Santarem, Iça, Fonteboa, San Paolo, Rio Trompetas, Sambaia, Manes, Javary, and Tabatinga.

The species would appear to be one of the commonest in Brazil.

110. ACHIRUS MAZATLANUS.

(MEXICAN SOLE; TEIPALCATE.)

Solea mazatlanica Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, ix, 23, 1869 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Comm., 1882, 108 (Mazatlan).

Achirus mazatlanus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 391 (Mazatlan).

Solea pilosa Peters, Berliner Monatsber., 1869, 709 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is not rare on the west coast of Mexico. We have examined numerous specimens collected by Professor Gilbert at Mazatlan. The *Solea pilosa* of Peters, as Dr. Steindachner has already indicated, is the same fish. The date of Steindachner's paper is said to be a little earlier than that of Professor Peters.

A specimen of this species is in the museum at Cambridge, collected by Professor Sumichrast at Chiapas.

111. ACHIRUS FONSECENSIS.

Solea fonscensis Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 475 (Gulf of Fonseca).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America (Gulf of Fonseca).

Only the original type of this species, obtained by Sir John Richardson, is yet known.

112. ACHIRUS PUNCTIFER.

Monochir punctifer Castelnau, Animaux Nouv. ou Rares, Amérique du Sud, 1855, 80, pl. 41, f. 3 (Rio Janeiro).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

We refer a sole (11436, M. C. Z.) from Itabapuana to *Monochir punctifer* Castelnau, although the figure published by this author does not represent it very well. The black pepper-like spots are much smaller in nature than in the picture. The following is Castelnau's description: "Longueur totale, 12 centimètres; plus grande largeur sans les nageoires, 7 centimètres; avec les nageoires, 9 centimètres. Nageoire dorsale de 48 rayons; anale de 42 rayons; caudale de 16 rayons. Les écailles sont fines et âpres, surtout celles de la tête. Le poisson est entièrement d'un brun vert et couvert, ainsi que les nageoires, de points noirs nombreux et assez rapprochés les uns des autres; en dessous il est d'un brun rougeâtre. J'ai trouvé une seule fois ce *Monochir* au marché de Rio."

113. ACHIRUS SCUTUM.

Solea scutum Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 475 (Gulf of Fonseca, Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

All that we know of this species is included in the description of Dr. Günther.

114. ACHIRUS GARMANI.

Achirus garmani Jordan, sp. nov. (Rio Grande do Sul).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

The type of this species is an example in good condition, 6 inches long (11246, M. C. Z.), from "the Rio Grande in South America." I have taken pleasure in naming it for my friend Mr. Samuel Garman, curator of ichthyology in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, to whose kindly aid I have been much indebted in my studies of the South American fishes. (D. S. J.)

115. *ACHIRUS FIMBRIATUS*.

Solea fimbriata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 477 (Gulf of Fonseca).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America (Gulf of Fonseca).

This species is known from Günther's description of a specimen taken by Sir John Richardson.

116. *ACHIRUS FASCIATUS*.

(THE AMERICAN SOLE; HOG-CHOKER.)

(Plates XXII and XXIII.)

Pleuronectes lineatus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 458 (on a specimen from Charleston, received from Dr. Garden), (not *Pleuronectes lineatus* of edition x). Gronow, Systema, ed. Gray, 1854, 90 (in part, chiefly based on Linnaeus).

Achirus lineatus Cuvier, Règne Animal, 1828. Gill, Cat. Fishes East Coast N. Am., Rept. U. S. F. C., 1872-'73. Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 368 (Beaufort; Neuse R.). Goode, *op. cit.*, 1879, 110 (St. John's R.). Goode & Bean, *op. c.*, 1879, 123 (Pensacola, Potomac R.). Bean, *op. c.*, 1880, 77 (Potomac R., New Bedford, Tompkinsville, N. Y., Newport, Chesapeake Bay, Providence). Jordan & Gilbert, *op. cit.*, 1882, 618 (Charleston). Bean, *op. cit.*, 1883, 365 (Havre de Grace).

Grammicichthys lineatus Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 101.

Achirus fasciatus Lacépède, Hist. Nat., Poiss., iv, 659, 662, 1803 (excl. syn.; description based entirely on the Linnaean account of the fish sent by Garden).

Pleuronectes mollis Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc. N. Y., i, 1815, 388, pl. 2, f. 4 (New York).

Achirus mollis Storer, Synopsis, 1846, 228. Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., 1867, 206, pl. 32 (Charles River, Holmes' Hole, Mass.). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 303, pl. 49, f. 159 (New York, ascending the Hudson River to Peekskill).

Achirus achirus mollis Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 137.

Pleuronectes apoda Mitchell, Amer. Monthly Mag. and Crit. Rev., Feb'y, 1818, 244 (Straits of Bahama), (perhaps *A. lineatus*).

Trinectes scabra Rafinesque, "Atlantic Journal and Friend of Knowledge, i, 1832 (Pennsylvania, in fresh water)."

Solea achirus Günther, iv, 476, 1862 (New York) (not *Pleuronectes achirus* L.).

Achirus achirus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 19. Jordan, Cat. Fish. N. A., 1885, 137.

Solea browni Günther, iv, 477, 1862 (New Orleans, Texas).

Achirus lineatus var. *browni* Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 305 (Pensacola, Galveston).

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of the United States, from Cape Cod to Texas, often ascending streams.

This species is the best known of the American soles, and it is common along our coast from Cape Cod to Texas, often ascending the rivers for a considerable distance above tide-water. It seldom exceeds 5 or 6 inches in length, and is of but little value as food on account of its small size. It was first described in the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ* from a specimen sent to Linnaeus by Dr. Garden. This specimen received the name of *Pleuronectes lineatus*, but the *Pleuronectes lineatus* of the tenth edition was a different fish, the name being originally based on a description of an *Achirus* found by Brown

and Sloane in Jamaica, a region in which the present species does not occur.

The specific name next in date to *lineatus* is that of *Achirus fasciatus* Lacépède. Lacépède quotes in his synonymy only the *Pleuronectes achirus* of the tenth edition of the *Systema*, which is a species from Surinam. His description of *Achirus fasciatus* is however wholly taken from the account given by Linnaeus of the fish sent by Garden. It therefore belongs to the present species, for which *fasciatus* seems to be the oldest tenable name.

The *Pleuronectes apoda* of Mitchell seems to be this species, as Mitchell expressly states that it has no pectoral fins. DeKay, however, speaks of it as a species of *Monochirus*. If DeKay examined Mitchell's specimen we may infer that the latter belonged to *A. lineatus* rather than to *A. fasciatus*.

This species has not yet been recorded from the West Indies. The form found along the Gulf coast has been described as a distinct species under the name of *Solea browni*. The differences are not very evident. We have compared a number of specimens from Boston (*fasciatus*) with others from Pensacola, and find the following differences, none of which are constant: In the Gulf variety (*browni*) the blind side is always immaculate, while in almost all Atlantic examples (*fasciatus*) the blind side is profusely covered with round dark spots. In one specimen, however (11360, Boston), the blind side is immaculate. The darker cross-streaks on the eyed side are usually broader and more numerous in southern specimens, and the scales on the blind side of the head rougher. There are no constant differences either in the fin-rays or in the scales.

We have examined specimens of this species from Boston, Chestertown, Tarrytown, New York, Port Monmouth, Havre de Grace, Potomac River, Neuse River, Beaufort, Charleston, Pensacola, Mobile, and Galveston. In one large specimen from Pensacola (11482 M. C. Z.) there is a rudiment of a pectoral fin on the eyed side. It consists of a single ray two-thirds as long as the eye.

117. ACHIRUS PANAMENSIS.

Solea panamensis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beiträge, v, 10, 1876, Taf. ii (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

Our knowledge of this species is derived from the description and excellent figure of Dr. Steindachner. The species is evidently very closely related to *Achirus fasciatus*, which it closely resembles in form and color.

118. ACHIRUS JENYNSSI.

Achirus lincatus Jenyns, Voyage Beagle, Fishes, 1842, 139 (Rio de la Plata) (not *P. lineatus* L.).

Solea jenynsi Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 476, 1862 (after Jenyns).

Habitat.—Region about Rio de la Plata.

The Museum of Comparative Zoology contains a single specimen (11425, 3 inches long) of this species. It was obtained in the Uruguay River by Prof. Jeffries Wyman. It is near *A. fasciatus*, from which species it differs mainly in having fewer fringes on the scales of the left side of head, and in having rather conspicuous cirri on the snout and chin.

Genus XLII.—GYMNACHIRUS.

Gymnachirus Kaup, Uebersicht der Soleinae, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 101 (*nudus*).

TYPE: *Gymnachirus nudus* Kaup.

We have examined none of the species of this singular genus. All that we know of it is drawn from the descriptions of Kaup and Günther. Two species have been described.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF GYMNACHIRUS.

- a. [Pectoral fin of right side present, very small, of two rays only, one-third as long as eye; jaws hidden in thick skin; lips slightly fringed; left side of head with a network of fringes; gill opening not reaching upward as far as pectoral; vertical fins covered with thick skin; caudal as long as head; head $5\frac{1}{2}$ (with caudal); depth 2; D. 68, A. 50; color yellowish olive, with 14 brown bands, as broad as the interspaces, which again are crossed by narrower bands, all these bands extending over the dorsal and anal, the first crossing the snout, the second and third the eye; caudal with three brown bands.] (Günther)..... FASCIATUS, 119.
- aa. [Pectoral fins both wanting. Body somewhat longer than high. D. 51; A. 42. Body with 14 black cross-bands; concentric rings about eyes; caudal with two black bands and a pale margin.] (Kaup)..... NUDUS, 120.

119. GYMNACHIRUS FASCIATUS.

Gymnachirus fasciatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 488, 1862 (locality unknown).

Habitat.—Unknown, probably Brazil.

We know this species from Dr. Günther's description only. Possibly *Gymnachirus nudus* may be the same species carelessly described by Dr. Kaup.

120. GYMNACHIRUS NUDUS.

Gymnachirus nudus Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 101 (Bahia). Günther, iv, 488 (copied).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

The scanty description of Kaup gives all that is known of this species.

Genus XLIII.—ACHIROPSIS.

Achiropsis Steindachner, Ichth. Beiträge, v, 110, 1876 (*nattereri*).

TYPE: *Solea nattereri* Steindachner.

This is another of the remarkable genera found in the fresh waters of South America. Although its species bear a strong general resemblance to the species of *Achirus*, they differ remarkably from the latter

in some details of structure, and their real relations are with *Apionichthys*. *Achiropsis* differs from *Apionichthys* chiefly in the development of the left ventral fin. This is rudimentary in *Apionichthys* and perfect in *Achiropsis*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ACHIROPSIS.

- a. [Gill-opening on both sides present, but reduced to a short slit as long as eye next to the upper end of the opercular margin; eye very small; snout with a proboscis-like prolongation beyond the mouth; blind side anteriorly covered with fringes, but without true scales; scales on body ctenoid; fins scaly. Dorsal and anal fins slightly joined to the caudal; ventral of right side continuous with the anal. Body oblong. Color grayish brown. Head 5 in length; depth 2 $\frac{1}{2}$. D. 82. A. 61. V. 5-5. P. 0., 37 to 40 scales in an oblique series above lateral line.] (*Steindachner*) NATTERERI, 121.
- aa. Gill-opening of eyed side wanting, the gill-membrane being throughout adnate to the shoulder-girdle; gill-opening of blind side an oblique slit just below posterior angle of opercle, its length 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Eyes small, close together, the upper considerably in advance of lower, their diameter equal to the interorbital width; snout protruding over the mouth, proboscis fashion, making the anterior profile a regular curve. Snout 2 $\frac{2}{3}$ in head. Scales small (larger than in *A. nattereri*), not as rough as in *Achirus*, those on the blind side of the head wanting anteriorly, their place taken by cirri and fringes of moderate length; lateral line distinct, straight; fin-rays scaly; lower lip slightly fringed on eyed side, not on blind side. Nostril as in *Achirus*, a round foramen in front of interorbital space, not produced into a tube. Dorsal beginning on the snout, the dorsal and anal slightly joined to the caudal; ventral fin beginning at the chin, in front of the isthmus, the tip of the snout being in contact with its first ray; ventral of right side with extended base, wholly continuous with the anal; left ventral lateral, normally placed, its five rays opposite the 3d, 4th, and 5th rays of the right ventral; no pectoral fins. Body oblong, less deep than in *Achirus*. Color sand-color, with faint traces of about 8 narrow cross-bands; body and fins profusely and finely mottled and speckled with darker. Head, 4 $\frac{1}{2}$; depth, 2 $\frac{1}{2}$. D. 60. A. 44. V. 5-5. P. 0. Scales 70, about 28 in an oblique series above lateral line.

ASPHYXIATUS, 122.

121. ACHIROPSIS NATTERERI.

Solea (Achiropsis) nattereri Steindachner, Ichth. Beiträge, v, 110, 1876 (Rio Negro).

Habitat.—Rivers of Northern Brazil.

We know this species from Steindachner's description only.

122. ACHIROPSIS ASPHYXIATUS.

Achiropsis asphyxiatus Jordan, sp. nov. (Goyaz, Brazil).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

The type of this species is a female specimen in good condition, 4 $\frac{2}{3}$ inches long (11106 M. C. Z.), from Goyaz, Brazil. It differs from all other flounders in having but a single gill-opening. Possibly this character is only accidental in the individual, and that a small gill-opening may normally be present on both sides. It is certainly not present on the eyed side in the typical example,

Genus XLIV.—APIONICHTHYS.

Apionichthys Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 104 (*dumerili*).

Soleotalpa Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 489, 1862, (*unicolor*).

TYPE: *Soleotalpa unicolor* Günther = *Apionichthys dumerili* Kaup.

Besides the species here mentioned, we find in the Zoological Record a reference to *Apionichthys bleekeri* Horst, Nederl. Tijdschr. Dierk. Verh., iv, 30, 1878. It is described from a specimen from unknown locality in the museum at Utrecht.

This genus is a near ally of *Achiropsis*, from which it is only to be separated by the rudimentary character of the left ventral fin. Although it bears some external resemblance to *Sympnurus*, its affinities are with *Achirus*. The species, if more than one really exists, have yet to be exactly defined.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF APIONICHTHYS.

- a. Left ventral reduced to two minute rays; body ovate-lanceolate, slender, and thinner than in *Achiropsis*, the eyes much smaller, reduced to mere points; scales very small, rough, those on head enlarged a little and fringed; upper eye in advance of lower, almost in the middle of the length of the head; gill-openings small, about equal on the two sides; right ventral beginning at the chin, and extending along the abdominal ridge so that it is continuous with the anal (left ventral destroyed in specimen examined); dorsal and anal slightly connected with caudal; color brown, rather pale, the body and fins profusely covered with round, dark spots of varying sizes, the largest as wide as from eye to eye. Head $4\frac{1}{2}$; depth $2\frac{3}{8}$. * D. 78. A. 56. Scales about 100 UNICOLOR, 123.
- aa. [Left ventral wholly obsolete; scales ctenoid, cycloid on blind side; fin-rays scaly; depth, $2\frac{3}{8}$; head, $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. 70 to 73. A. 52 to 54. V. 5-0. Lat. l. 87 to 90. Color clear brownish yellow.] (Steindachner) OTTONIS, 124

123. APIONICHTHYS UNICOLOR.

Apionichthys dumerili Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 104. (No locality; no description.)

Soleotalpa unicolor Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 489. (West Indies.) (?)

Apionichthys unicolor Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 603. (Name only.)

Apionichthys dumerili Bleeker, Nederl. Tijdschr. voor Dierkunde, ii, 1865, 305. Steindachner, Ichth. Beitr., viii, 1878, 48. (Surinam.)

Apionichthys nebulosus Peters, Berliner Monatsberichte, 1869, 709. (Surinam.)

Habitat.—Brazilian fauna.

We have examined a single specimen of this species (4677 M. C. Z.) $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, from Obydos, in Brazil. It evidently corresponds to the *Apionichthys dumerili* of Bleeker and Steindachner, and apparently also to the *Apionichthys nebulosus* of Peters, although Peters failed to find the rudimentary left ventral fin. This fin, in fact, is not present in the specimen examined by us, it having been destroyed in attaching the metallic tag.

Günther's *Soleotalpa unicolor* may be the same, but the account of the coloration does not accord with the specimen examined by us, nor

* D. 76. A. 57. Scales 92. Color uniform brownish gray (Günther). D. 72. A. 53. Scales 95. Color brownish, mottled with darker spots (Steindachner).

with the statements of other authors. Perhaps the plain coloration may be due to age, or to the poor condition of the typical specimen.

Kaup's *Apionichthys dumerili* has not been described at all, but simply mentioned as the type of the genus. As his species cannot be identified, its name should not be used.

124. APIONICHTHYS OTTONIS.

Apionichthys ottonis Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, vii, 41, 1868 (Sicily).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

This species is unknown to us. Judging from the published descriptions, it must be very close to *Apionichthys unicolor*, and only the different locality would appear to indicate specific distinction.

Genus XLV.—BRACHIRUS.

Brachirus Swainson, Nat. Hist. Class'n Fishes, 1839, ii, 303 (*orientalis*, *zebra*, *commersoniana*, etc.) (not *Brachyrus* Swainson, nor *Brachyurus* Fischer, both prior names).

Synaptura Cantor, Catal. Malayan Fishes, 1850, 232 (*commersoniana*, *zebra*) (name a substitute for *Brachirus*, preoccupied by *Brachyurus*, which is regarded as the correct orthography).

Solenoides Bleeker (*fide* Kaup).

? **Euryglossa** Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 99 (*orientalis*).

? **Eurypleura** Kaup, l. c. (substitute for *Achiroides*).

? **Achiroides** Bleeker, Verh. Bataav. Genootsch., xxiv, Pleuron., 6, 1862 (*melanorhynchus*).

? **Anisochirius** Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 486. (*panoides*).

TYPE: *Pleuroneectes zebra* Bloch (as restricted by Swain., Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1883).

We have had opportunity to study but few of the numerous species referred to this genus, and have no opinion as to the proper limitation of the group. Possibly neither of the European species should be referred to it.

We retain the name *Brachirus* (*i. e.*, *Brachyichirus*), notwithstanding the priority of the name *Brachyrus*, which seems to have the same meaning. If, however, this name of Swainson be rejected, that next in order of date is *Synaptura*, which has now the advantage of general usage.

ANALYSIS OF THE SPECIES OF BRACHIRUS.

- a. [Pectoral fins subequal; one of the nostrils of the blind side large, round, much dilated; depth, 3 in length, with caudal; head, 5; upper jaw overhanging; pectorals both present, equal in length, their length equal to their distance from the eye; color greenish brown, marbled with darker. D. 72; A. 58 to 60; P. 8. (Kaup)] SAVIGNYI, 125.
- aa. [Pectoral fins unequal, the right pectoral $\frac{1}{2}$ its distance from the eye; nostril on each side dilated, trumpet-like; lateral line straight; ventral not inserted at chin; body rather elongate, depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4. D. 72 to 76; A. 58 to 60. Color chestnut, much spotted and variegated; three rows of pale ocelli bordered with dark along side of body.] (Capello) LUSITANICUS, 126.

125. BRACHIRUS SAVIGNYI.

Synaptura savignyi Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 97 (Naples). Günther, iv, 480. 1862 (copied).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We know nothing of this species, except what is contained in the scanty description of Kaup. According to Professor Giglioli, none of the Italian naturalists have seen this species.

126. BRACHIRUS LUSITANICUS.

Synaptura lusitanica Capello, Jorn. Ac. Sci. Lisb., v, 1868, 92, and vi, 1869, 153, tab. 9, f. 1 (Lisbon).

Habitat.—Coast of Portugal.

We have not examined this species, and know it from Capello's description only.

Genus XLVI.—SYMPHURUS.

Sympodus Rafinesque, Indice all' Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 52 (*nigrescens*).

Bibronia Cocco, Alcuni Pesci del mare di Messina, 1844, 15 (*ligulata*; larval form).

Plagusia Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1828 (based on *Plagusia* of Brown; name preoccupied in Crustaceans, Latreille, 1806).

Plagiusa Bonaparte, Catalogo Metodico, 1846, 51 (*lactea*; substitute for *Plagusia* preoccupied).

Aphoristia Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 106 (*ornata*).

Glossichthys Gill, Cat. Fish. E. Coast N. A., 51, 1861 (*nomen nudum*: *plagiusa*).

Ammopleurops Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., iv, 1862, 490 (*lacteus* = *nigrescens*).

? **Bascanius** Schiödte, "Naturhist. Tydsskr.", v, 269, 1867" (*taedifer*; larval form).

Acedia Jordan, subgenus novum (*nebulosus*).

TYPE: *Sympodus nigrescens* Rafinesque.

We have adopted for this genus the name *Sympodus* instead of *Aphoristia*, as the so-called *Ammopleurops lacteus* is a genuine member of the latter genus, and as it seems to be evident that the latter species is the original of the *Sympodus nigrescens* of Rafinesque.

The following is Rafinesque's description :

"III. Gen. *Sympodus*. Ala caudale acuta, e riunita all' ale dorsali, ed anali, occhj alla sinistra. Osserv. Si dovranno ragguagliare in questo genere due specie del genere *Achirus* di Lacepede, cioè gli *A. bilineatus*, e *A. ornatus*. "Sp. no. 44. *Sympodus nigrescens*. Nerastro senza fascie, allungato, una sola linea laterale da ogni lato."

This single lateral line assumed to distinguish *Ammopleurops* from *Aphoristia* is not a real lateral line, but a depression along the median line produced by the junction of the muscles.

The species of *Sympodus* are somewhat numerous and very closely allied. With the exception of the European *Sympodus nigrescens*, all of them are American.

The development of the species is imperfectly known. According to Giglioli, the larvae called *Bibronia*, may belong to this genus, and so possibly may *Delothyrus* and *Charybdia*.

The name *Plagusia* belongs properly to the present genus rather than to the type of *Plagusia bilineata*, to which it has been restricted by Kaup and Günther. It is, however, preoccupied in crustaceans, and in any case, both *Plagusia* and the substitute name *Plagiusa* are antedated by the name *Sympfururus*.

One of the American species referred to *Sympfururus, nebulosus*, seems to differ widely from the others and is probably the type of a distinct genus, or subgenus, for which we have suggested the name *Acedia*. This name is applied by the Cuban fishermen to *Sympfururus plagusia*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF SYMPHURUS.

a. Scales ctenoid, not keeled. (*Sympfururus.*)

b. Scales small, moderately ctenoid; the number in a longitudinal series from 75 to 105.

c. Dorsal and anal fins chiefly black anteriorly and posteriorly, with paler edgings; body moderately elongate, the depth $3\frac{3}{8}$ in length; the head $4\frac{1}{2}$. Scales rather small, not very rough, about 80 in a longitudinal series. D. 90; A. 73 to 75. Color rather pale, plain or more or less mottled with darker, but without cross-bars; fins chiefly black with paler edgings NIGRESCENS, 127.

cc. Dorsal and anal pale anteriorly, becoming more or less abruptly black posteriorly.

d. [Caudal fin abruptly pale; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head, $5\frac{1}{2}$. D. 96 to 100; A. 86 to 87. Scales, 88 to 90. Color, grayish, speckled with brown; dorsal and anal fins black on last tenth, the caudal abruptly pale; tips of fin-rays vermillion.] (*Goode & Bean*) MARGINATUS, 128.

dd. Caudal fin black, as is a large part of the dorsal and anal; the black either continuous or in the form of large spots. Color, brownish, often mottled, usually with more or less distinct darker cross-bands, and with longitudinal streaks along the rows of scales, sometimes nearly plain brown.

e. Scales quite small, 98 to 105.

f. Body decidedly elongate, the depth about $4\frac{3}{8}$ in length; D. 97; A. 82; scales, 98 ELONGATUS, 129.

ff. Body less elongate, the depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head, $5\frac{1}{2}$; longitudinal streaks very distinct; D. 100; A. 80; scales about 105 ATRICAUDA, 130.

ee. Scales somewhat larger, 75 to 85; body rather elongate, the depth $3\frac{1}{8}$ to $3\frac{3}{8}$ in length; the head $5\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{3}{8}$; D. 90 to 95; A. 75 to 80.

PLAGUSIA, 131.

ccc. Dorsal and anal pale throughout, or more or less mottled or spotted with darker; the caudal similarly colored, not distinctly black; body not very elongate, the depth 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length. (Probably all varieties of *S. plagiussa*) PLAGIUSA, 132.

x. Body with dark cross-bands more or less distinct; the fins mottled or speckled; upper eye slightly in advance of lower.

y. Dorsal rays 86 to 95; anal rays 75 to 80; head 5 in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; scales 85 to 93; cross-bands more distinct than in related species.

Var. *plagiussa*, 132 (a).

yy. Dorsal rays 78 to 85; anal rays 70 to 72; head 5 in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; scales 80 to 90; color light brown, with darker cross-bars, which become obsolete with age Var. *pusillus*, 132 (b).

- xx. [Body uniform grayish, without cross-bands; last part of dorsal and anal with 3 or 4 oblong black blotches, each somewhat larger than the eye; upper eye directly above lower; head, $5\frac{2}{3}$ in length; scales, 85; D. 92; A. 75.] (*Goode & Bean*)
 Var. *diomedeanus* 132 (c).
- bb. [Scales rather large, very rough-ctenoid, about 65–34; depth, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head, $4\frac{1}{2}$; D. 90; A. 69 to 75; color clouded brown, somewhat blotched.]
 (*Goode & Bean*). PIGER, 133.
- aa. [Scales very small, ctenoid, each with a median keel, which is dark and prominent; snout and jaws naked; fin-rays in increased number.] (Subgenus *Acedia* Jordan.)
- h. Head, $5\frac{2}{3}$; depth, $4\frac{2}{3}$; D. 119; A. 107; scales, 120; grayish, everywhere mottled with brown.] (*Goode & Bean*). NEBULOSUS, 134.

127. SYMPHURUS NIGRESCENS.

Sympodus nigrescens Rafinesque, Indice all' Ittiologia Siciliana, 1810, 52 (Palermo).

Plagusia lactea Bonaparte, Fauna Ital. Pesci, about 1840.

Ammopleurops lacteus Günther, iv, 490 (copied).

Plagusia picta Cocco (fide Giglioli).

Bibronia ligulata Cocco, "Alcuni Pesci del mare di Messina, 1844, 390" (Messina) (larva).

? *Bascanius taedifer* Schiödte, Natur. Tydsskr., v, 269, 1867 (free-swimming oceanic larvæ).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

We have examined three specimens of this rare species, obtained at Palermo by Professor Doderlein. As already noticed, this is a genuine member of the genus usually called *Aphoristia*, having no lateral line. These three specimens have the body nearly uniform in color. They correspond to the *Ammopleurops lacteus* of European authors. A specimen in the museum at Cambridge from Naples is somewhat mottled and represents the nominal species *Ammopleurops pictus*.

128. SYMPHURUS MARGINATUS.

Aphoristia marginata Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xii, 153. (Off St. Vincent, etc.)

Habitat.—West Indies.

This species is known only from the original types, taken in deep water (94 to 324 fathoms) in the West Indies.

129. SYMPHURUS ELONGATUS.

Aphoristia ornata var. *elongata* Günther, Fishes Centr. Amer., 1869, 473. (Panama.)

Aphoristia elongata Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Comm., 1882, 111. (Pauamá.)

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is not uncommon on the Pacific coast of Central America, where it represents the closely related *Sympodus plagusia*. Its relations with *Sympodus atricauda* are still closer.

130. SYMPHURUS ATRICAUDA.

Aphoristia atricauda Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 23 (San Diego).
 Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 842. Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 380. (San José, Lower California.) Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 54.

Habitat.—Lower California, north to San Diego.

This species is common in the bay of San Diego, in which locality the numerous specimens before us were taken. A small specimen $1\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, with light spots on the colored side and a pale ocellation on the black of the tail, taken by Mr. L. Belding near Cape San Lucas, probably belongs to the same species.

Sympfurus atricauda is very close to *S. elongatus*, and both might well be regarded as geographical varieties of *S. plagusia*.

131. SYMPHURUS PLAGUSIA.

(ACEDIA.)

Plagusia Brown, Jamaica, 445, No. 1. (Jamaica.)

Pleuronectes plagusia Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 1801, 162 (after Brown).

Achirus ornatus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 659, 1803 (on a specimen "presented by Holland to France").

Plagusia ornata Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii.

Aphoristia ornata Kaup, Wiegmann's Archiv, 1858, 106. Günther, iv, 490 (San Domingo, Jamaica). Poey, Synopsis, 1868, 409. Poey, Enumeratio, 1875, 140 (Havana). Kner, Novara Fische, iii, 292. (D. 90; A. 75; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; Rio Janeiro.)

Plagusia tessellata Quoy & Gaimard, Voyage Uranie, Zoologie, 240, 1824 (Rio Janeiro).

Plagusia brasiliensis Agassiz, Spix Pisc. Brasil., 1827, p. 89, tab. 50. (Brazil.)

Aphoristia plagiusa Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 53. (Havana.) (Not *S. plagiusa* of this paper.)

Habitat.—West Indian fauna (south to Rio Janeiro).

The numerous specimens of this species examined by us are from Havana, Pernambuco, Santos, Rio Janeiro, Curuça, and Victoria.

The synonymy of this species is somewhat doubtful. The original type of *Pleuronectes plagiusa* was sent to Linnæus by Dr. Garden, of Charleston. It would therefore appear probable that this specimen represented the species of this genus which is found on the Carolina coast. But this typical specimen is still preserved in the rooms of the Linnaean Society in London, where it has been examined by Goode and Bean.

From their notes (Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 196) we quote: "The type of this species may have come from Africa or India. There is considerable doubt as to its origin. (See Garden's Correspondence with Linné, page 314.) D. ca 92, A. ca 80. Scales 77. The species is more elongate than our specimens of *Aphoristia plagiusa*, so called, the depth being contained in the total length without caudal $4\frac{1}{3}$ times and the head 6 times."

As, however, no species of this genus are yet known from Africa or India, it is rather probable that Garden's fish actually came from

Charleston. The greater slenderness of the original type is perhaps due to distortion, and the smaller number than usual of the scales does not afford a marked distinction.

On account of the fact that the West Indian species as a rule is a little slenderer than the northern one and has a little larger scales, Dr. Jordan has elsewhere adopted for the former the Linnæan name, but, on the whole, it seems more probable that the original *plagiusa* was the northern fish.

The name *ornatus* is also doubtful in its proper application. The only thing distinctive in the description of Lacépède is that the typical specimen was "given by Holland to France." Many of the species in this Dutch collection seem to have come from Surinam, and this is probably no exception. But Lacépède's description might apply as well to any other species of *Sympodus* as to this.

The name *Pleuronectes plagusia*, given by Schneider to the species described by Brown, seems to admit of no doubt, as this is the only one of the group yet known from Jamaica. If, therefore, the name *plagiusa* be used for the northern species, or dropped altogether as not identified, the present species will stand as *Sympodus plagusia*.

We have compared numerous specimens from Rio Janeiro (representing the nominal species *tessellatus* or *brasiliensis*) with others (*plagusia* = *ornata*) from Havana. There is certainly no permanent difference. The Brazilian specimens are a little more slender on an average, but there are numerous exceptions, and all variations in color are found in both.

132. SYMPHURUS PLAGIUSA.

(TONGUE-FISH.)

a. Var. plagiusa.

Pleuronectes plagiusa Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 1766, 455 (on a specimen from Dr. Garden, probably from Charleston, but the locality not quite certain; and of various copyists).

Glossichthys plagiusa Gill, Cat. Fish. E. Coast N. Am., 1861, 51 (name only).

Plagusia plagiusa Gill, Cat. Fish. East Coast N. Am., 1872-'3, 794 (name only).

Aphoristia plagiusa Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 368 (Beaufort).
Jordan, *op. cit.*, 1880, 22 (St. John's River). Jordan & Gilbert, *op. cit.*, 1882, 305 (Pensacola); 1882, 618 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 842. Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 144 (Key West).

Plagusia fasciata Holbrook, MSS. De Kay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 1842, 304 (Charleston).

Aphoristia fasciata Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 53.

b. Var. pusillus.

Aphoristia pusilla Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. N. Mus., 1885, 590 (Gulf Stream; lat. 40°).

c. Var. diomedeanus.

Aphoristia diomedeanus Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 589 (Gulf of Mexico; 24 fathoms).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States.

This species is very common on the sandy shores of our South Atlantic and Gulf States. Our numerous specimens are from Beaufort, Charleston, Pensacola, and Key West.

The reasons for continuing to regard this species as the original *Pleuronectes plagiusa* of Linnaeus, are given under the head of *Sympodus plagiusa*.

If however, the name *plagiusa* be referred to the West Indian form or dropped as unidentifiable, the name *fasciatus* would then hold for this species.

The characters distinguishing *elongatus*, *atricauda*, *plagiusa*, *plagiusa*, *pusillus*, and *diomedeanus* are of slight value, and doubtless all will ultimately prove to be varieties of a single one, the coloration of the fins being more marked in southern specimens.

A specimen nearly six inches long collected at Beaufort, N. C., by Prof. O. P. Jenkins seems referable to *pusillus* rather than to the typical *plagiusa*. It is highly mottled in coloration, the body and fins being profusely speckled and blotched with blackish besides 9 or 10 rather distinct cross-bands. D. 85, A. 72. Scales about 80. Depth 3½ in length.

Another large specimen 7 inches long from the Florida Keys is in the museum at Cambridge. This has: D. 82, A. 72, lat. 1. 76. Depth 3 in length. Color brown almost plain, except that the fins are mottled, especially posteriorly; caudal fin not black.

If these two specimens are really typical of *Sympodus pusillus*, it probably cannot be separated as a species from *S. plagiusa*.

The form called *diomedeanus* is known to us from the description only. It is certainly very similar to *S. plagiusa*. Perhaps it is identical with our Key West specimens of the latter. These are very pale, and nearly plain gray, as would be expected in fishes taken from the coral sands.

133. SYMPHURUS PIGER.

Aphoristia pigra Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xiii, 5, 1886, 154 (St. Kitts, Key West, Cedar Keys, in about 250 fathoms).

Habitat.—West Indies and Gulf of Mexico, in deep water.

This species is known to us from the original description. It is evidently a better-defined species than are most of the others.

134. SYMPHURUS NEBULOSUS.

Aphoristia nebulosa Goode & Bean, Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., xix, 1883, 192 (Gulf Stream, off the coast of Carolina).

Acedia nebulosa Jordan, MSS.

Habitat.—Gulf Stream.

This species is known from the original account only. The description would indicate a species considerably unlike those forming the rest

of the genus. If its scales are really keeled it may form the type of a distinct genus. The increased number of fin-rays also indicates a probability that the number of vertebrae will be found to be similarly increased. For the subgenus of which this is the type, we have suggested the name of *Acedia*.

LARVAL FORMS.

(BIBRONIÆ.)

The very young of all the *Pleuronectidae* so far as known are transparent and with the eyes symmetrical. At a length of from one-fourth of an inch to an inch the eye of one side moves by degrees to the other side, where it becomes the upper eye. The question has been much discussed as to how this change comes about—whether by a twisting of the head so that the eye moves over the line of the profile, whether by passing from side to side beneath the frontal bone, or by passing between the frontal bone and the bases of the dorsal rays, or whether by each of these methods in different genera. The present writers have had no opportunity to make any observations on this point, the statements which follow being entirely drawn from others, chiefly from the papers of Dr. Luigi Facciola.*

According to Prof. Japetus Steenstrup,† who has examined some "plagusiiform" specimens (*Sympodus*?) about 25 millimeters in length, the eye, by a combined movement of rotation and translation, goes from its original position to the other side by passing under the frontal bone.

In other flounders examined by Prof. Alexander Agassiz the eye is said to have crossed from side to side above the frontal bone, penetrating the space between this bone and the dorsal fin by sinking into the tissues of the head. In the species examined by Dr. Facciola the eye was found to pass between the frontal bone and the dorsal rays, but without penetrating any tissues. During the passage of the eye the first dorsal ray formed a projection detached from the cranium, and in the notch between this and the head the eye has passed from one side to the other.

It has not been easy to determine with certainty the species to which these larval forms belong. The first of these which were known were described by Cocco as distinct genera, allied to the flounders, but distinguished from them by the symmetrical arrangement of the eyes. For the group thus defined Bonaparte has proposed the family name of Bibronidi (*Bibroniidae*), and this name has been adopted by some of the Italian ichthyologists.

* "Sulla Stato Giovanile del *Rhomboichthys mancus*," Facciola, Naturalista Siciliano, vi, 1887, and "Su di Alcuni Rari Pleuronettidi del mare di Messina," Nat. Sicil., iv, 1885.

† "Om Skjæbheden hos Flynderne og navnlig om Vandringen af det øvre Oie fra Blindsiden til Ojesiden tvers igennem Hovedet," 1864.

Lately the relations of these forms have been made the subject of careful study by Dr. Carlo Emery, Dr. Luigi Facciola, and others of the Italian naturalists, and no doubt remains that the "*Bibroniidae*" are larval flounders and soles.

For the sake of completeness, we give the following analysis of the nominal genera and the synonymy of the species:

ANALYSIS OF THE NOMINAL GENERA OF BIBRONIÆ OR LARVAL FLOUNDERS AND SOLES.

- a. Eyes wholly sinistral; mouth toothless, shaped as in the soles; upper jaw hook-shaped; head very small; caudal fin sub sessile, free from the dorsal and anal; scales small, caducous, cycloid; eyes small; pectoral fins both present, the right pectoral small; ventral fins both present, free from anal; dorsal fin of long, simple rays, their tips much exserted; body moderately elongate; the depth 3 in length; dorsal rays 100; anal rays 80. P. 12-4.
DELOTHYRIS, A.
 aa. Eyes partly sinistral, the one on the left side, the other on the vertex (in the act of transition); form pleuronectoid..... COCCOLUS, B.
 aaa. Eyes, one on either side of the head; strictly symmetrical (or with the right eye somewhat higher than the other), and with a notch before it, between the cranium and the dorsal fin.
 b. Vertical fins scarcely or not confluent; left ventral largest, on abdominal ridge.
 c. Body excessively compressed, broadly ovate, its depth $1\frac{1}{2}$ in its length; both profiles very convex; the snout not forming an angle; no scales; none of the dorsal rays prolonged; ventral fin single (*Facciola*); pectoral fins short, rounded, with fleshy base and fringe-like rays; D. 85; A. 65. Jaws equal, with small, acute teeth..... PELORIA, C.
 cc. Body more elongate; scales present or absent; pectorals adipose, with fringe-like rays.
 d. Ventral fin single; first four rays of the dorsal well separated and with much exserted tips; dorsal and anal slightly joined to caudal; depth about $4\frac{1}{2}$ in length; D. 4, 106; A. 100. (Emery) ?CHARYBDIA, D.
 dd. Ventral fins both present, the left ventral with more prolonged base; dorsal with only the first ray (if any) prolonged; dorsal and anal free from caudal; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 in length (*Facciola*)..... CHARYBDIA, D.
 bb. Vertical fins fully confluent; form lanceolate.
 e. Body linguiform, the depth 6 in length; no teeth; snout obtuse; eyes minute; ventral fins two; four or five of the dorsal rays produced; pectorals pedunculate. D. 90; A. 80 BIBRONIA, E.
 ee. Body plagusiiform; perfectly transparent..... BASCANIUS, F.

Synonymy of genera of larval Pleuronectidæ or Bibroniæ.

Bibronia Cocco, "Intorno ad alcuni Pesci del mare di Messina. Lettera al Sig. Augusto Krohn da Livonia. In Giornale del Gabinetto & Lettere di Messina. Ann. iii, tom. v, fasc. xxv. Gennaio e febbraio 1844, pag. 21-30, tav. 2" (sive *Facciola*) (*ligulata*).

Peloria Cocco, l. c. (*haekeli*).

Coccolus (Bonaparte) Cocco, l. c. (*annectens*).

Bascanius Schiödte, Naturhist. Tidsskr., v, 269, 1867 (*tadifer*).

Thyris Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 344 (*pellucidus*: name preoccupied).

Delothyris Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 110 (*pellucidus*).

Charybdia Facciola, Naturalista Siciliano, iv, 265, 1885 (*rüppelli*).

*Synonymy of species of Bibroniæ.***1. DELOTHYRIS PELLUCIDUS.**

Thyris pellucidus Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 337, 344, 475. (Gulf Stream, off Rhode Island). Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. N. A., 1882, 810 (copied). *Delothyrus pellucidus* Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 110.

This fish is unquestionably a larval form, but probably the adult is not yet known. In some respects it resembles *Monolene*, in others it seems allied to the *Cynoglossinæ*. The type was nearly three inches in length.

2. COCCOLUS ANNECTENS.

Coccolus annectens (Bonaparte) Cocco, l. c., 1844 (Messina).

This species has not yet been described in detail, but from the form of the body it would seem to resemble most closely the young of *Platophrys podas*.

3. PELORIA HÆCKELI.

Pelorria hæckeli Cocco, l. c., 1844 (Messina). Emery, Contribuzione all' Ittiologia, 405 (Naples). Facciola, Nat. Sicil., 1885, 5.

The specimens of this species described by Facciola are 20 to 36 mm in length. According to Facciola,* it can be confounded with no known species of Pleuronectoid. Dr. Emery has maintained that it is the young of *Platophrys podas*, and his figure and description seem to render this determination almost certain.

4. CHARYBDIA. (Species.)

Pelorria rüppelli Emery, Contribuzione all' Ittiologia (Naples).

The description given by Dr. Emery of *P. rüppelli* diverges so widely from that given by Dr. Facciola, that the identity of the two may be questioned. If, as is possible, the pectorals in the achiropus forms disappear with age, this species may belong to the *Cynoglossinæ*. More likely, it is a relative of *Arnoglossus*, or of *Monolene*.

5. CHARYBDIA RÜPPELLI.

Pelorria rüppelli Cocco, l. c., 1844 (Messina).

Charybdia rüppelli Facciola, Nat. Sicil., 1885, 5 (Messina).

This is probably the young of some species as yet unknown in the adult condition. Some of its characters suggest *Arnoglossus ventralis*.

According to Facciola, the body is naked; the form oval; the mouth as long as the eye; right eye higher than left; first dorsal ray only prolonged; no scales; left ventral with its base longer than the right; length 30 to 40 mm. D. 113, A. 91.

* "Non è a dubitarsi che questi Pleuronettidi son giovani di altro specie più grandi. Dico soltanto che la *Pelorria hæckeli* non può confondersi con nessun Pleuronettide conosciuto." (Facciola.)

6. CHARYBDIA RHOMBOIDICHTHYS.

Charybdia rhomboidichthys Facciola, Nat. Sicil., 1885, 6 (Messina).

Form, oval; the two outlines similar; snout, obtuse, somewhat prominent; teeth, insensible; eye, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, the right a little above the left; none of the dorsal rays prolonged; scales, cycloid, thin; lateral line without arch; length 40 mm. D. 99, A. 74, V. 6.

This form seems to be allied to *Syacium* and *Arnoglossus*.

7. BIBRONIA LIGULATA.

Bibronia ligulata Cocco, l. c., 1844 (Messina). Facciola, Nat. Sicil., 1885, 4 (Messina).

This form is known from specimens one-third of an inch in length. If we suppose that in *Syphurus* the pectoral fins become atrophied with age, this may well be the larva of *Syphurus nigrescens*.

8. BASCANIUS TÆDIFER.

Bascanius tædifer Schiödte, "Naturhist. Tydsskrift, v, 269, 1867" (Oceanic).

We have not seen the original description of this form, but from the references made to it by other authors it would appear to be a larval *Syphurus*.

RECAPITULATION.

The following is the list of the genera and species of flounders now recognized by us as occurring in the waters of North America and Europe:

The general distribution of each may be indicated by the following letters:

- E. Europe (North of Spain).
- M. Mediterranean Sea.
- B. Bassalian or deep-sea fauna of the Atlantic.
- G. Greenland fauna.
- N. East coast of United States; Cape Cod to Cape Hatteras.
- S. South Atlantic and Gulf coast.
- W. West India fauna.
- R. Brazilian fauna (Rio).
- T. Patagonian fauna (Terra del Fuego).
- P. Panama fauna.
- V. Chilian fauna (Valparaiso).
- C. Californian fauna.
- A. Alaskan fauna.

Subfamily I.—HIPPOGLOSSINÆ.**1. Atheresthes (Jordan & Gilbert).**

1. *Atheresthes stomias* (Jordan & Gilbert). A.

2. Platysomatischthys Bleeker.

2. *Platysomatischthys hippoglossoides* (Walbaum). G.

3. Hippoglossus Cuvier.

3. *Hippoglossus hippoglossus* (Linnæus). E. G. A.

- 4. Lyopsetta** Jordan & Goss.
4. *Lyopsetta exilis* (Jordan & Gilbert). A.
- 5. Eopsetta** Jordan & Goss.
5. *Eopsetta jordani* (Lockington). C.
- 6. Hippoglossoides** Gottsche.
6. *Hippoglossoides platessoides* (Fabricius). E. G.
6 (b). ——— var. *limandooides* Bloch. E. G.
7. *Hippoglossoides elassodon* Jordan & Gilbert. A.
- 7. Psettichthys** Girard.
8. *Psettichthys melanostictus* Girard. C. A.
- 8. Hippoglossina** Steindachner.
9. *Hippoglossina macrops* Steindachner. P.
10. *Hippoglossina microps* Günther. V.
- 9. Xystreurus** Jordan and Gilbert.
11. *Xystreurus liolepis* Jordan & Gilbert. C.
- 10. Paralichthys** Girard.
12. *Paralichthys californicus* (Ayres). C.
13. *Paralichthys brasiliensis* (Ranzani). R. W.
14. *Paralichthys adspersus* (Steindachner). P. V. (Possibly to be called *P. kingi*.)^{*}
15. *Paralichthys dentatus* (Linnæus). N. S.
16. *Paralichthys lethostigma* Jordan & Gilbert. N. S.
17. *Paralichthys squamilentus* Jordan & Gilbert. S.
18. *Paralichthys alboguttata* Jordan & Gilbert. S.
19. *Paralichthys patagonicus* Jordan. T.
20. *Paralichthys oblongus* Mitchell. N.
- 11. Aencylopsetta** Gill.
21. *Aencylopsetta quadrocellata* Gill. S.
22. *Aencylopsetta dilecta* (Goode & Bean). B.

Subfamily II.—PLEURONECTINÆ.

- 12. Phrynorhombus** Günther.
23. *Phrynorhombus regius* Bonnaterre. M. E.
- 13. Zeugopterus** Gottsche.
24. *Zeugopterus punctatus* (Bloch). E.
- 14. Lepidorhombus** Günther.
25. *Lepidorhombus whiffiagonis* (Walbaum). E.
26. *Lepidorhombus norvegicus* (Günther). E. (Doubtful species.)
- 15. Citharus** Bleeker.
27. *Citharus linguatula* (Linnæus). M.
- 16. Pleuronectes** (Linnæus) Fleming.
§ *Pleuronectes*.
28. *Pleuronectes maximus* Linnæus. E. M.
28 (b). ——— var. *mæoticus* (Pallas). M.
§ *Bothus* Rafinesque.
29. *Pleuronectes rhombus* Linnæus. E. M.
30. *Pleuronectes maculatus* Mitchell. N.

* *Hippoglossus kingi* is known from a drawing only, executed by unscientific hands. In all respects but one this drawing agrees well with *P. adspersus*. The first 18 of the 66 rays of the dorsal are represented as lower than the others, apparently forming a distinct portion. Depth 2 in length. Anal rays 51.

17. Arnoglossus Bleeker.§ *Arnoglossus*.

31. *Arnoglossus lophotes* Günther. M. (Doubtful species; perhaps identical with *A. grohmanni*—perhaps with *Bothus imperialis* Rafinesque.)
32. *Arnoglossus grohmanni* (Bonaparte). M.
33. *Arnoglossus conspersus* (Canestrini). M. (Doubtful species; probably same as the next.)
34. *Arnoglossus laterna* (Walbaum). M. E.

§ —.

35. *Arnoglossus? jimbriatus* (Goode & Bean). B. (Probably type of a distinct genus.)
36. *Arnoglossus? ventralis* (Goode & Bean). B. (Perhaps type of a distinct genus.)

§ —.

18. Platophrys Swainson.

37. *Platophrys podas* (Delaroche). M.
38. *Platophrys spinosus* (Poey). W. (Doubtful species.)
39. *Platophrys constellatus* Jordan. V.
40. *Platophrys ocellatus* (Agassiz). S. W. R.
41. *Platophrys maculifer* (Poey). W. (Synonymy doubtful.)
42. *Platophrys ellipticus* (Poey). W. (Doubtful species.)
43. *Platophrys lunatus* (Linnaeus). W. R.
44. *Platophrys leopardinus* (Günther). P.

19. Syacium Ranzani.

45. *Syacium cornutum* (Günther). R.
46. *Syacium papillosum* (Linnaeus). S. W. R.
47. *Syacium micrurum* (Ranzani). S. W. R.
48. *Syacium latifrons* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
49. *Syacium ovale* (Günther). P.

20. Azevia Jordan.

50. *Azevia panamensis* Steindachner. P.

21. Citharichthys Bleeker.§ *Orthopsetta* Gill.

51. *Citharichthys sordidus* (Girard). C.
52. *Citharichthys stigmaeus* Jordan & Gilbert. C. (Doubtful species.)

§ *Citharichthys*.

53. *Citharichthys dinoceros* Goode & Bean. B.
54. *Citharichthys arctifrons* Goode. B.
55. *Citharichthys unicornis* Goode. B.
56. *Citharichthys macrops* Dresel. S.
57. *Citharichthys uhleri* Jordan. W.
58. *Citharichthys spilopterus* Günther. S. W. P. R.
59. *Citharichthys sumichrasti* Jordan. P.
- 59 (b). **Citharichthys microstomus* Gill. S.

22. Etropus Jordan & Gilbert.

60. *Etropus ectenes* Jordan. V.
61. *Etropus rimosus** Goode & Bean. S.
62. *Etropus crossotus* Jordan & Gilbert. S. W. P. R.

*We are probably in error in regarding *Etropus rimosus* as identical with *Citharichthys microstomus*. The latter has a larger mouth, the maxillary 2½ in head, instead of nearly 4 as in the former.

23. **Thysanopsetta** Günther.63. *Thysanopsetta naresi* Günther. T.24. **Monolene** Goode. (Genus of uncertain relationships.)64. *Monolene sessilicauda* Goode. B.65. *Monolene atrimana* Goode & Bean. B.

Subfamily III.—ONCOPTERINÆ.

25. **Oncopterus** Steindachner.66. *Oncopterus darwini* Steindachner. T.

Subfamily IV.—PLATESSINÆ.

26. **Pleuronichthys** Girard.67. *Pleuronichthys decurrens* Jordan & Gilbert. C. A.68. *Pleuronichthys verticalis* Jordan & Gilbert. C. A.69. *Pleuronichthys caenosus* Girard. C. A.27. **Hypsopsetta** Gill.70. *Hypsopsetta guttulata* (Girard). C.28. **Parophrys** Girard.71. *Parophrys vetulus* Girard. C. A.29. **Inopsetta** Jordan & Goss.72. *Inopsetta ischyra* (Jordan & Gilbert). A.30. **Isopsetta** Lockington.73. *Isopsetta isolepis* (Lockington). A. C.31. **Lepidopsetta** Gill.74. *Lepidopsetta bilineata* (Ayres). C.74 (b). —— *umbrosa* (Girard). A.32. **Limanda** Gottsche.75. *Limanda ferruginea* (Storer). G.76. *Limanda limanda* (Linnæus). E.77. *Limanda aspera* (Pallas). A.78. *Limanda beani* Goode. B.33. **Pseudopleuronectes** Bleeker.79. *Pseudopleuronectes americanus* (Walbaum). N.80. *Pseudopleuronectes pinnifasciatus* (Kner). A. (Generic relations uncertain.)34. **Platessa** Cuvier.§ *Platessa*.81. *Platessa platessa* (Linnæus). E. M.81 (b). —— —— *pseudoflesus* (Gott sche). E.82. *Platessa quadriflora* (Pallas). A.§ *Flesus* Moreau.83. *Platessa flesus* Linnaeus. E. M.83 (b). —— —— *glabra* (Rathke). M.35. **Liopsetta** Gill.84. *Liopsetta dvinensis* (Lilljeborg). E. (Doubtful species, probably identical with *L. glacialis*.)85. *Liopsetta putnami* (Gill). N. (Probably identical with the next.)86. *Liopsetta glacialis* (Pallas). A.36. **Platichthys** Girard.87. *Platichthys stellatus* (Pallas). A. C.

37. ***Microstomus*** Gotsche. (To be called *Cynicoglossus* if *Microstomus* be deemed preoccupied.)
 88. *Microstomus kitt* (Walbaum). E.
 89. *Microstomus pacificus* (Lockington). A.
38. ***Glyptocephalus*** Gotsche.
 90. *Glyptocephalus cynoglossus* (Linnaeus). E. G.
 91. *Glyptocephalus zachirus* (Lockington). A.

Subfamily V.—SOLEINÆ

39. *Solea* Quensel.

§ *Solea*.

92. *Solea solea* (Linnaeus). E. M.
 93. *Solea capellonis* (Steindachner). M. (Doubtful species.)
 94. *Solea brasiliensis* (Cuvier). R. (Species unknown to recent writers.)
- § *Pegusa* Günther.
95. *Solea kleini* (Risso). M.
 96. *Solea aurantiaca* (Günther). E. (Doubtful species.)
 97. *Solea lascaris* (Risso). M. (Synonymy doubtful; perhaps to be called *S. scriba*.)
 98. *Solea theophila* (Risso). M. (Synonymy somewhat doubtful.)
 99. *Solea variolosa* (Kner). R.

40. *Monochirius* Rafinesque.

§ *Quenselia* Jordan.

100. *Monochirius ocellatus* (Linnaeus). M.

§ *Microchirus* Bonaparte.

101. *Monochirius lutens* (Risso). M.
 102. *Monochirius variegatus* (Donovan). M. E.
 103. *Monochirius minutus* (Parnell). M. (Doubtful species.)

§ *Monochirius*.

104. *Monochirius hispidus* Rafinesque.

41. *Achirus* Lacépède.

§ *Baiostoma* Bean.

105. *Achirus achirus* (Linnaeus). W. R. (Possibly to be called *A. gronovii*.)
 106. *Achirus inscriptus* (Gosse). W. S.
 107. *Achirus klunzingeri* (Steindachner). P. V.
 108. *Achirus mentalis* (Günther). R.
 109. *Achirus lineatus* (Linnaeus). S. W. R.
 109 (b). ——— *brachialis* (Bean); S.
 109 (c). ——— *comifer* (Jordan & Gilbert). S.
 110. *Achirus mazatlanus* (Steindachner). P.
 111. *Achirus fonscencensis* (Günther). P.
 112. *Achirus punctifer* (Castelnau). R.
 113. *Achirus scutum* (Günther). P.
 114. *Achirus garmani* (Jordan). R.

§ *Achirus*.

115. *Achirus simbriatus* (Günther). P.
 116. *Achirus fasciatus* (Lacépède). N. S.
 117. *Achirus panamensis* (Steindachner). P.
 118. *Achirus jenynsi* (Günther). R.
 118 (b). *Achirus lorentzi* (Weyenbergh). R. (Species unknown to us.)

42. *Gymnachirus* Kaup.

119. *Gymnachirus fasciatus* (Günther). R.
 120. *Gymnachirus nudus* (Kaup). R.

43. *Achiropsis* Steindachner.

121. *Achiropsis nattereri* (Steindachner). R.
 122. *Achiropsis asphyxiatus* (Jordan). R.

44. *Apionichthys* Kaup.

123. *Apionichthys unicolor* (Günther). W. R. (Synonymy a little uncertain.)
 124. *Apionichthys ottonis* (Steindachner). M. (Doubtful species.)

45. *Brachirus* Swainson. (To be called *Synaptura* if *Brachirus* be regarded as preoccupied.)

125. *Brachirus savignyi* (Kaup). M.
 126. *Brachirus lusitanicus* (Capello). M. (Species unknown to us.)

Subfamily VI.—CYNOGLOSSINÆ.

46. *Syphurus* Rafinesque.§ *Syphurus*.

127. *Syphurus nigrescens* (Rafinesque). M.
 128. *Syphurus marginatus* (Goode & Bean). W.
 129. *Syphurus elongatus* (Günther). P.
 130. *Syphurus atricauda* (Jordan & Gilbert). C.
 131. *Syphurus plagusia* (Bloch & Schneider). W. R.
 132. *Syphurus plagiusa* (Linnæus). S.
 132 (b). —— *pusillus* (Goode & Bean). S.
 132 (c). —— *diomedeanus* (Goode & Bean). S.
 133. *Syphurus piger* (Goode & Bean). W.

§ *Acedia* Jordan. (Probably a distinct genus.)

134. *Syphurus nebulosus* (Goode & Bean). W.

LARVAL FORMS. (*Bibroniæ*.)

A. DELOTHYRIS Goode.

1. *Delothyris pellucidus* (Goode). B.

B. COCCOLUS Bonaparte.

2. *Coccolus annectens* (Bonaparte). M.

C. PELORIA Cocco.

3. *Peloria hæckeli* (Cocco). M.

D. CHARYBDIA Facciola.

4. *Charybdia* sp. (Emery). M.

5. *Charybdia rüppelli* (Cocco). M.

6. *Charybdia rhomboidichthys* (Facciola). M.

E. BIBRONIA Cocco.

7. *Bibronia ligulata* (Cocco). M.

F. BASCANIUS Schiödte.

8. *Bascanius tardifer* (Schiödte). B.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY,

Bloomington, Ind., July 10, 1887.

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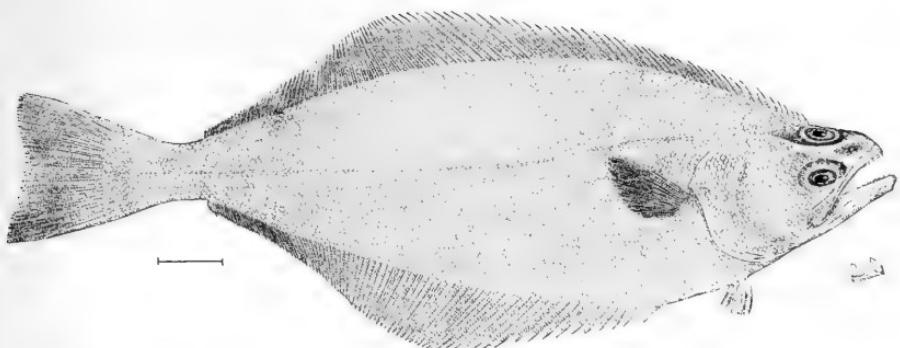


FIG. 1.—*ATHERESTHES STOMIAS* Jordan & Gilbert. The Arrow-toothed Halibut.
(From No. 27186: Point Reyes, California.)

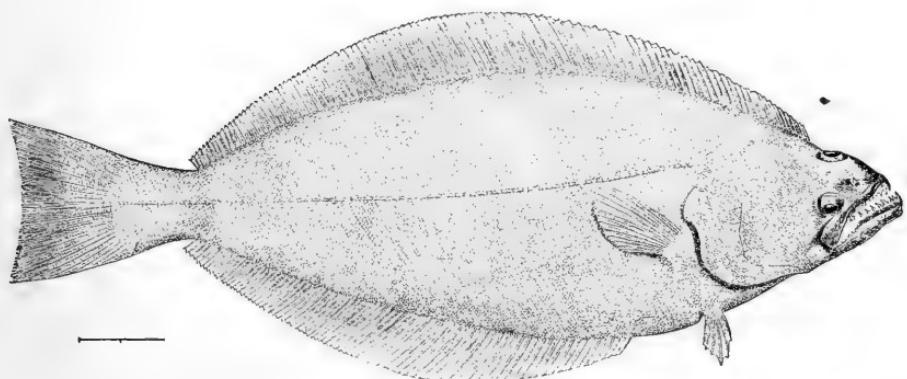


FIG. 2.—*PLATYSOMATICHTHYS HIPPOGLOSSOIDES* (Walbaum). The Greenland Halibut.

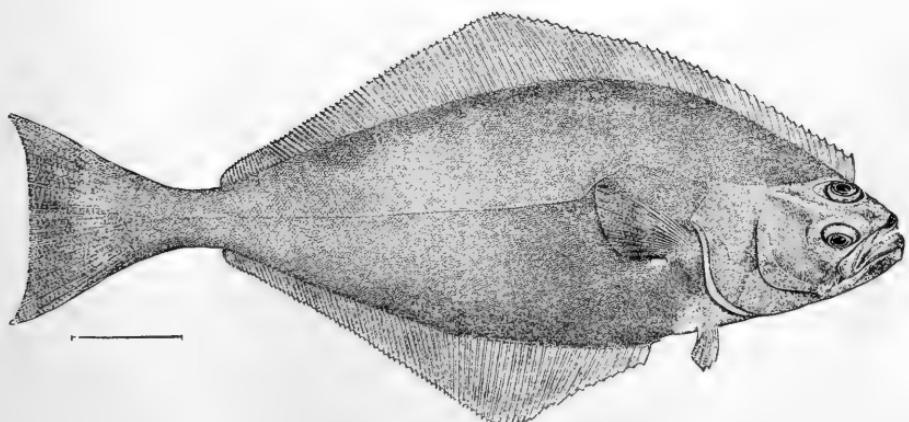


FIG. 3.—*HIPPOGLOSSUS HIPPOGLOSSUS* (Linnæus). The Halibut.
(No. 10439: Eastport, Maine.)

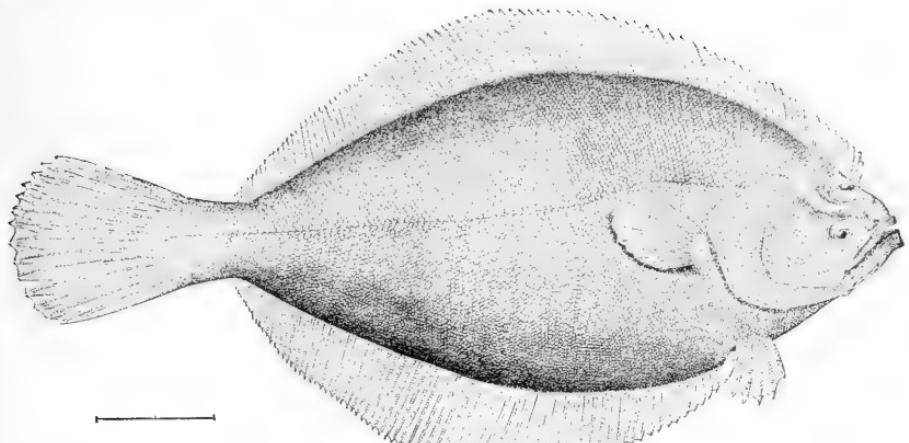


FIG. 4.—*HIPPOGLOSSOIDES PLATESSOIDES* (Fabricius). The Sand Dab.
(No. 21002: Le Have Bank.)

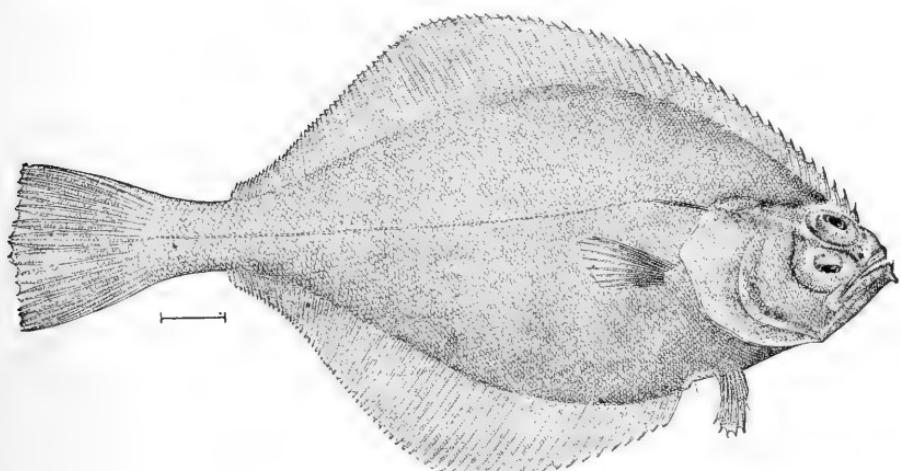


FIG. 5.—*HIPPOGLOSSOIDES ELASSODON* Jordan & Gilbert. The Alaska Sand Dab.
(No. 27938: Humboldt Harbor, Shumagins, Alaska.)

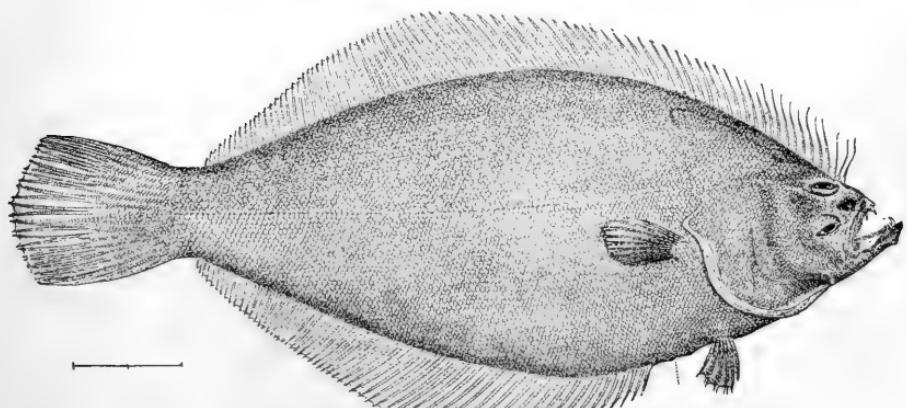


FIG. 6.—*PSETTICHTHYS MELANOSTICTUS* Girard. The San Francisco "Sole."
(No. 27602: San Francisco, California.)

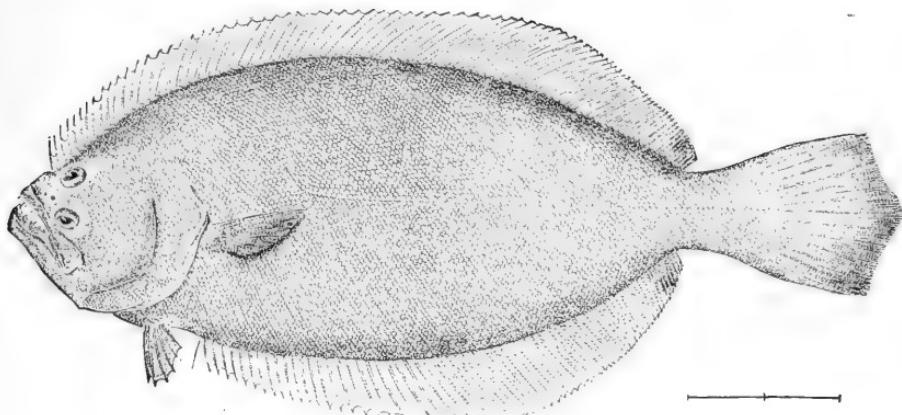


FIG. 7.—*PARALICHTHYS LETHOSTIGMA* Jordan & Gilbert. The Southern Flounder.
(No. 21279: Saint John's River, Florida.)

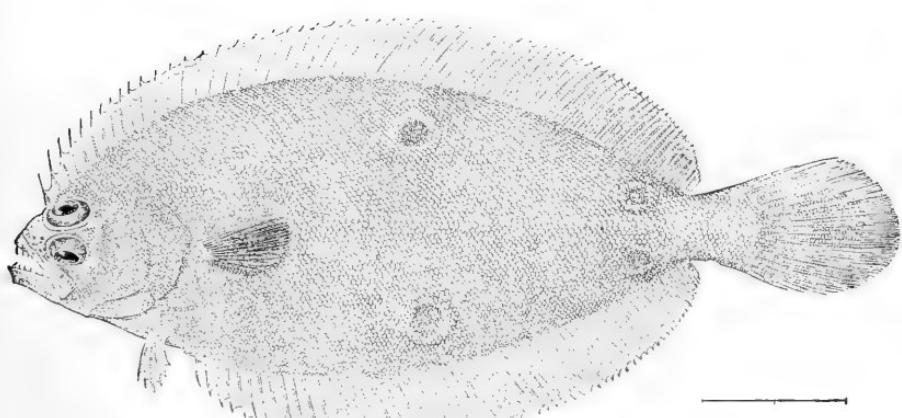


FIG. 8.—*PARALICHTHYS OBLONGUS* (Mitchill). The Four-spotted Flounder.
(No. 10730: Wood's Holl, Massachusetts.)

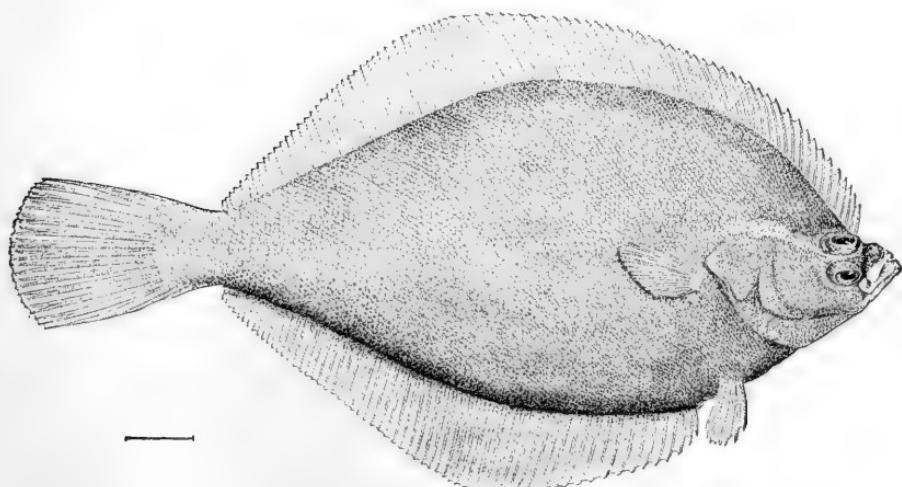
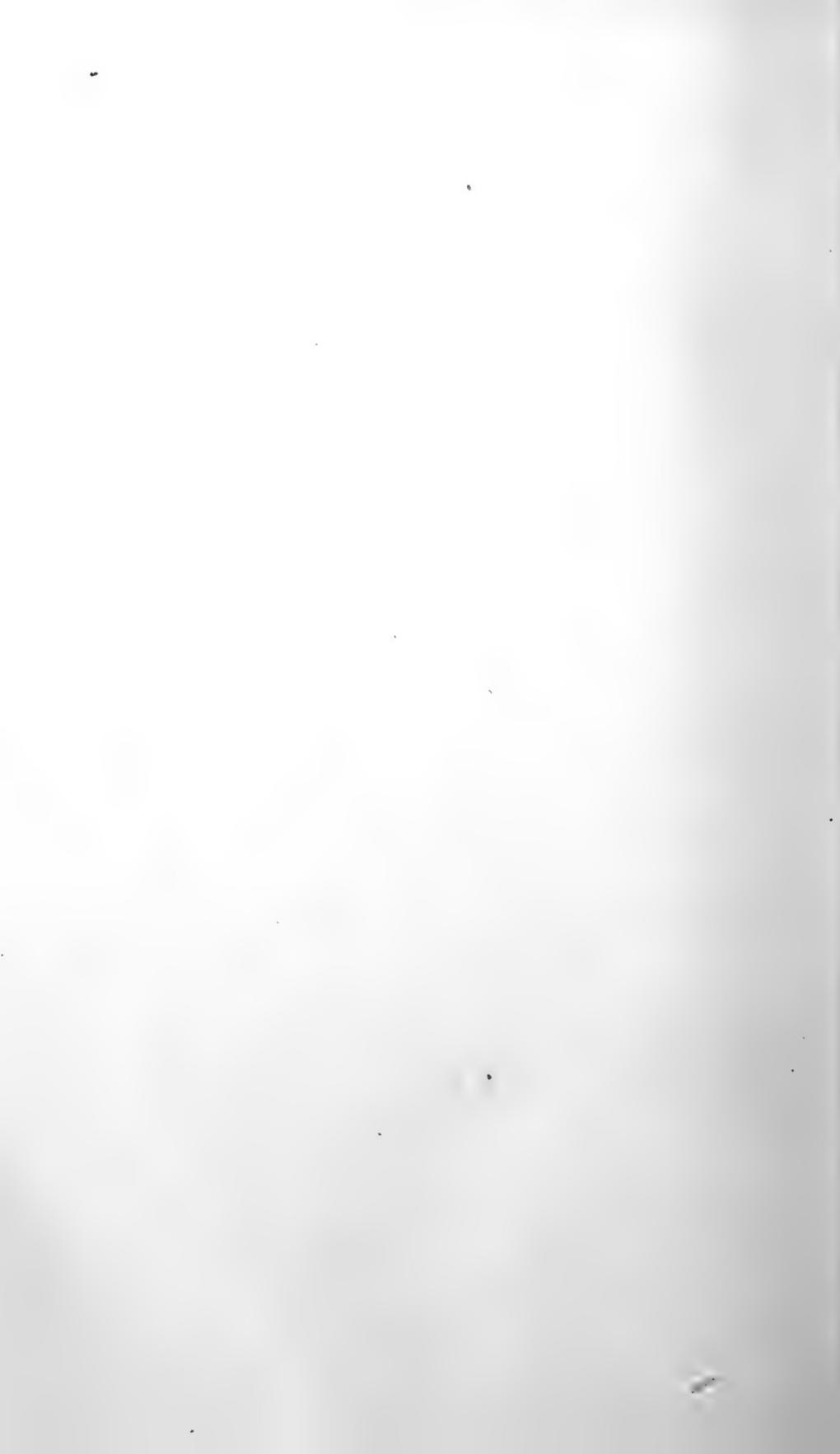
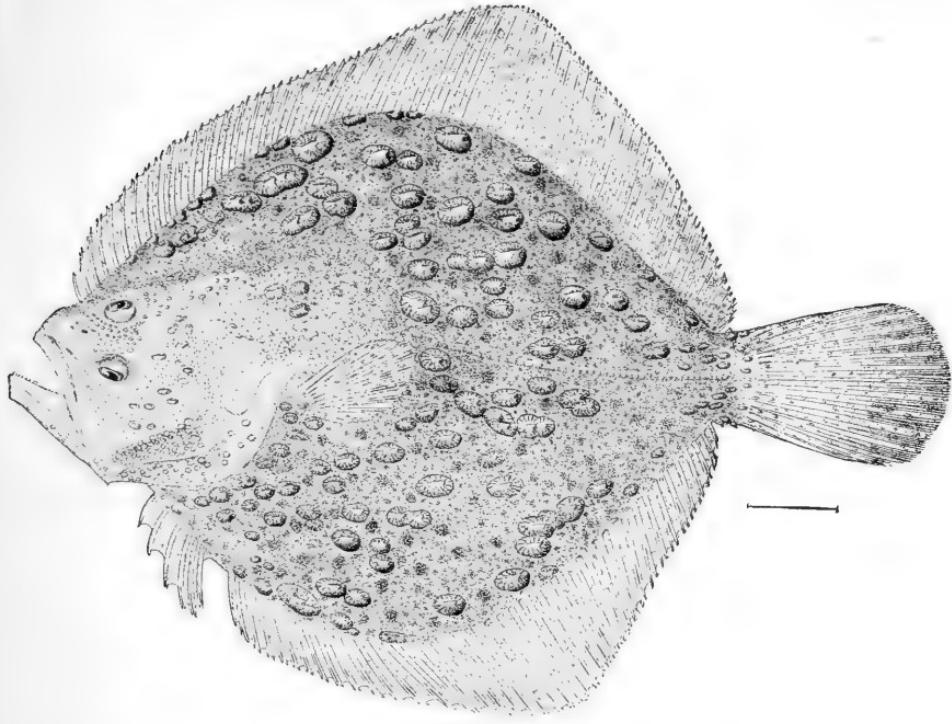


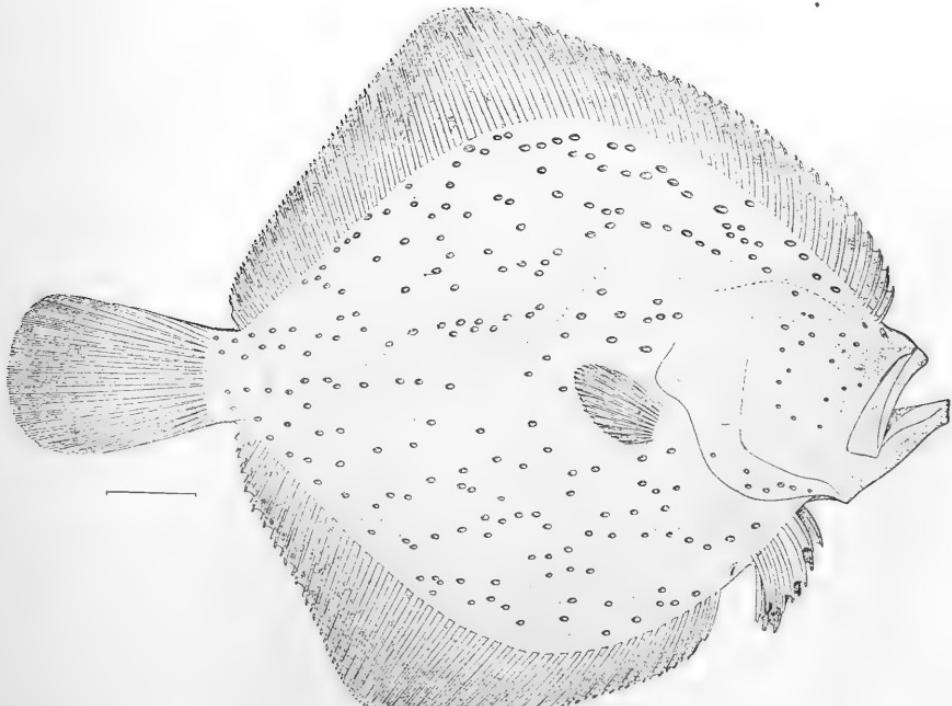
FIG. 12.—*LIMANDA FERRUGINEA* (Storer). The Rusty Dab.
(No. 21020: Halifax, Nova Scotia.)





LEFT SIDE.

FIG. 9.—*PLEURONECTES MAXIMUS* Linnæus. The Turbot.
(From No. 36902: Europe.)



RIGHT SIDE.

FIG. 10.—*PLEURONECTES MAXIMUS* Linnæus. The Turbot.
(From No. 36902: Europe.)

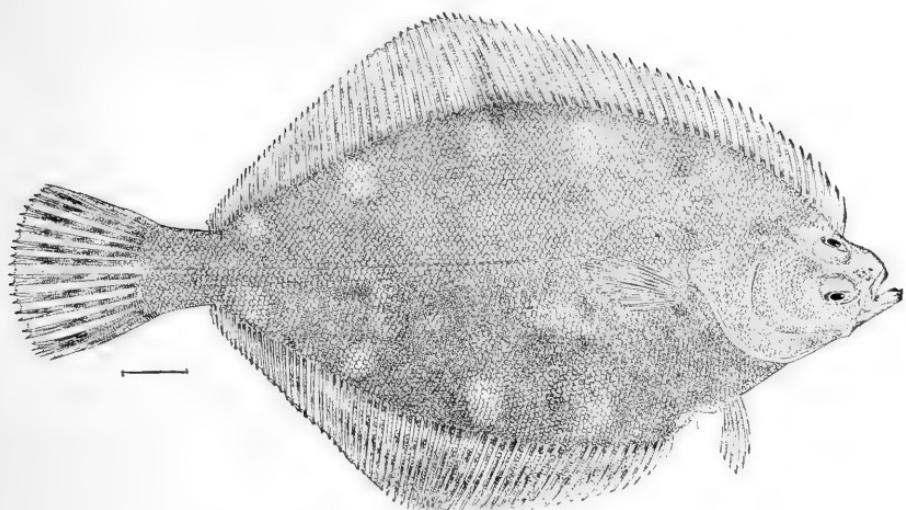


FIG. 11.—*LEPIDOPSETTA BILINEATA* (Ayres.) The California "Sole."

(Var. *umbrosa* Girard.)

(No. 27602: Saint Paul, Kodiak.)

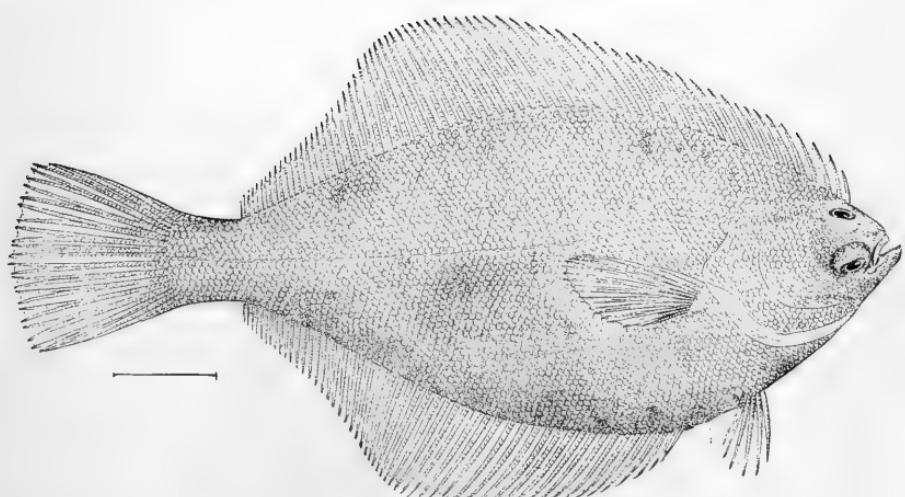


FIG. 13.—*LIMANDA ASPERA* (Pallas). The Alaska Rusty Dab.

(No. 27944: Sitka, Alaska.)



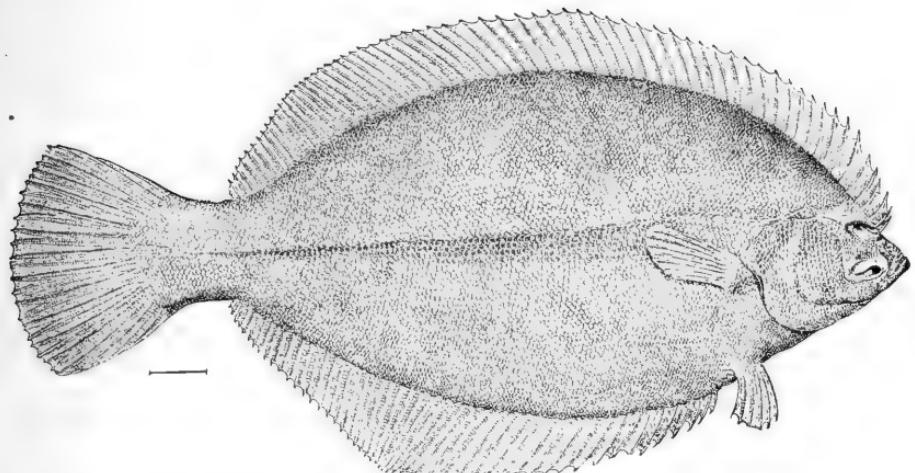


FIG. 14.—*PSEUDOPLEURONECTES AMERICANUS* (Walbaum). The Flat Fish, or Winter Flounder.

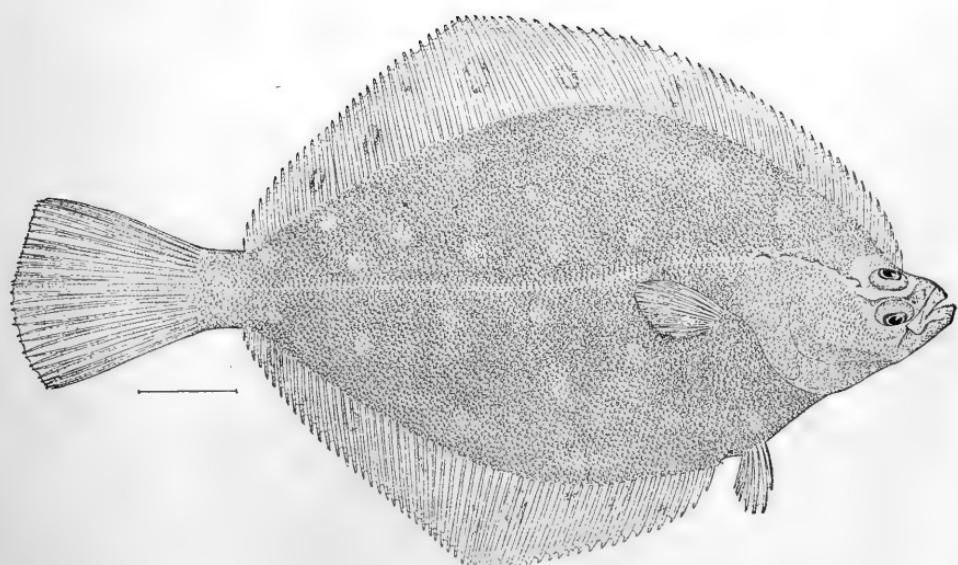


FIG. 15.—*PLATESSA PLATESSA* Linnæus. The Plaice.
(From No. 21175: France.)

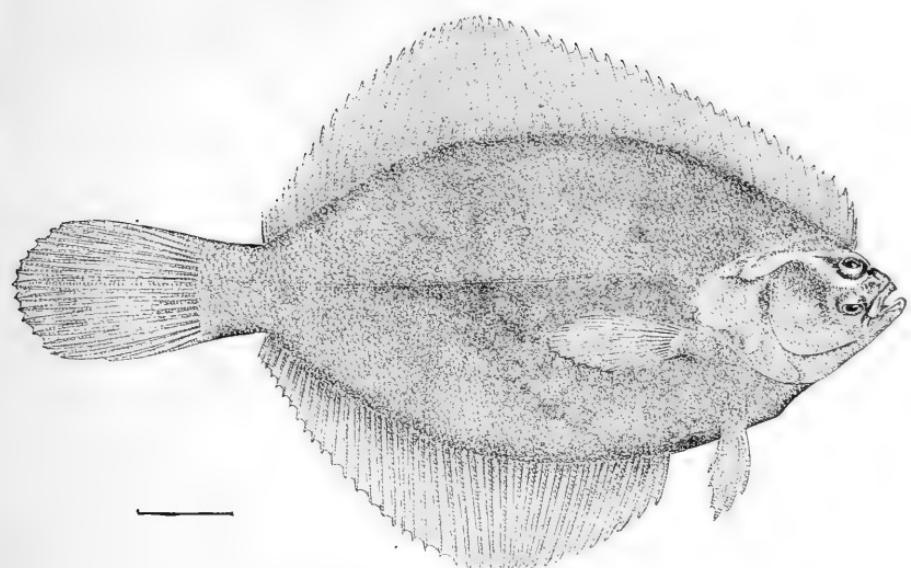


FIG. 16.—*LIOPSETTA PUTNAMI* (Gill). The Eel-back Flounder (male).
(No. 5368: Salem, Massachusetts.)

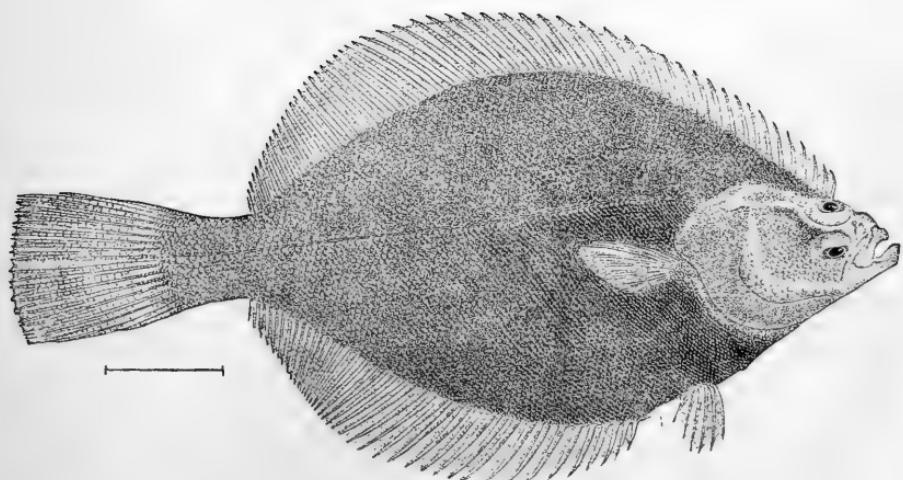


FIG. 17.—*LIOPSETTA GLACIALIS* (Pallas). The Alaska Eel-back Flounder (female).
(No. 27497: Kotzebue Sound.)



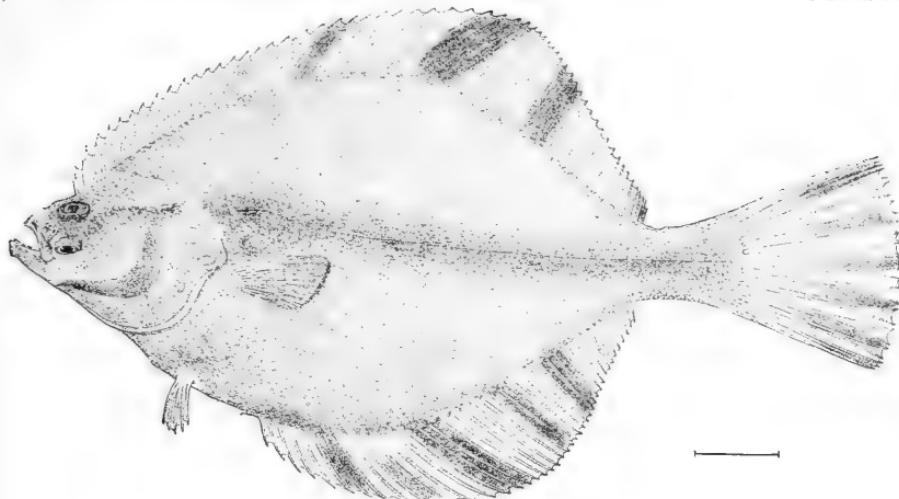


FIG. 18.—*PLATICHTHYS STELLATUS* (Pallas). The Great California Flounder.
(From a reversed example.)
(No. 24164: San Francisco, California.)

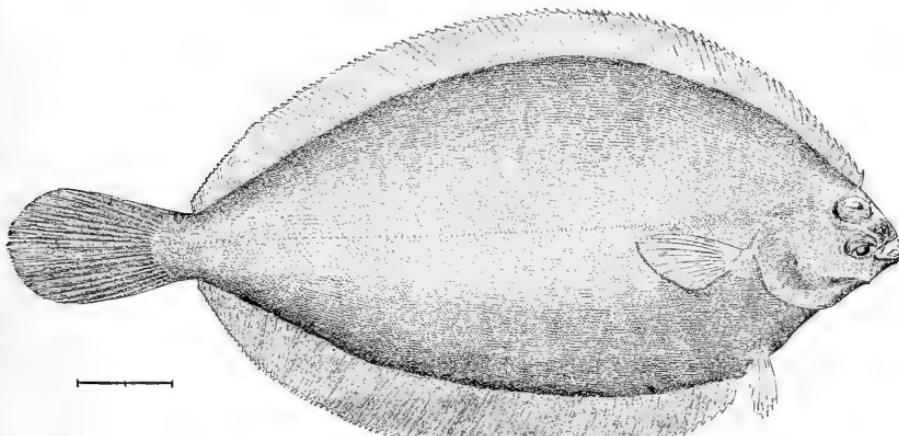
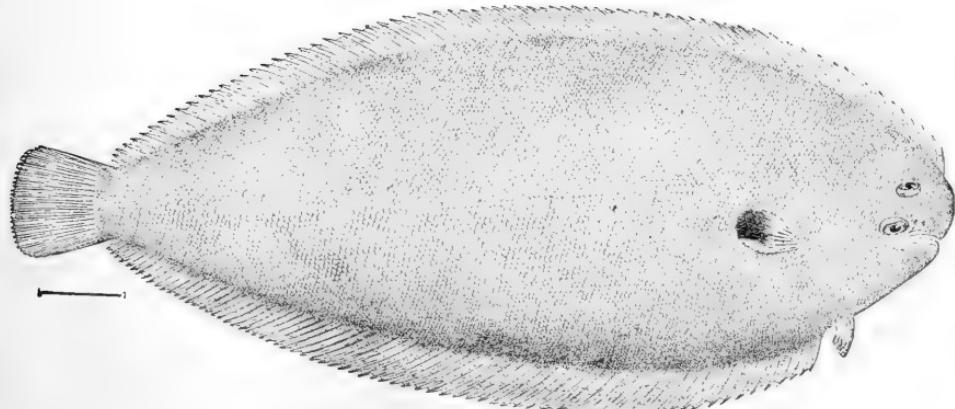


FIG. 19.—*GLYPTOCEPHALUS CYNOGLOSSUS* (Linnæus). The Pole Flounder.
(Atlantic.)



RIGHT SIDE.
FIG. 20.—*SOLEA SOLEA* Linnæus. The Sole.
(From No. 17324: Helsingburg, Sweden.)

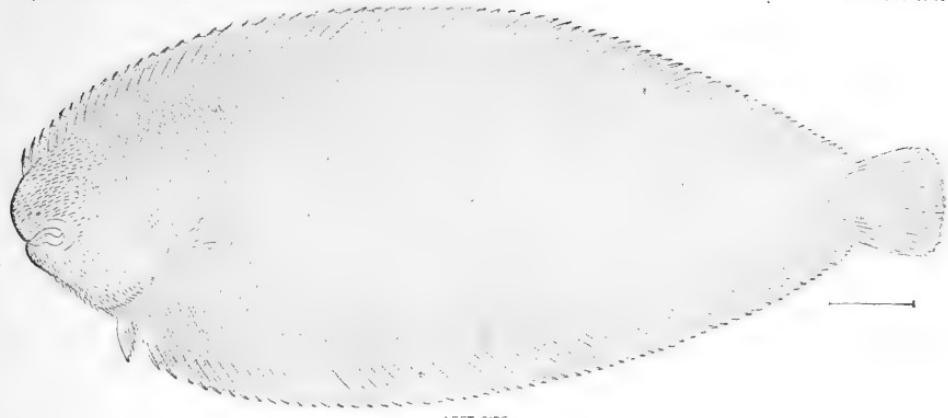


FIG. 21.—*SOLEA SOLEA* Linnæus. The Sole.
(From No. 17324: Helsingburg, Sweden.)

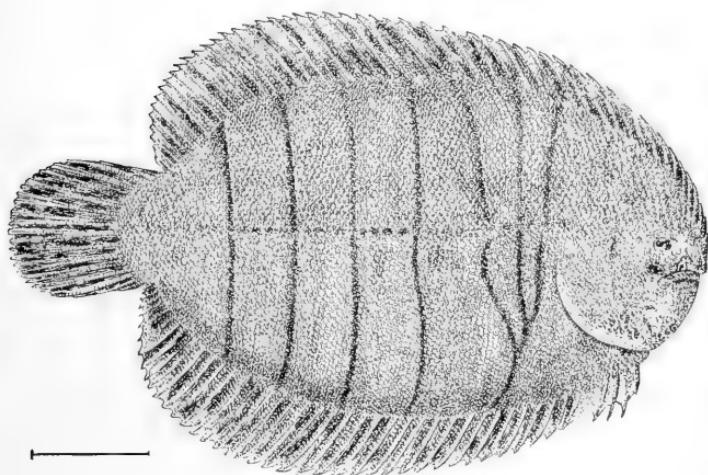


FIG. 22.—*ACHIRUS FASCIATUS* Lacépède. The American Sole, or "Hog Choker."
(No. 12985: Wood's Hole, Massachusetts.)

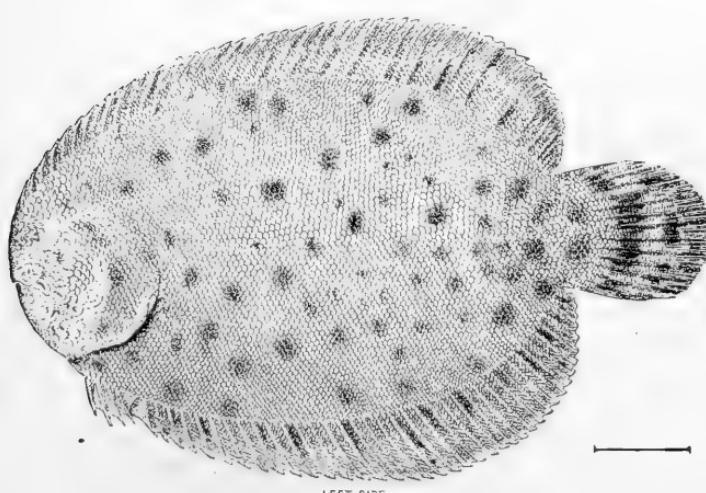


FIG. 23.—*ACHIRUS FASCIATUS* Lacépède. The American Sole, or "Hog Choker."
(No. 12985: Wood's Hole, Massachusetts.)

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[NOTE.—The references are to page-figures in brackets.]

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<i>Pleuronectidae</i>	1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 14, 66, 103, 104	<i>hirtus</i>	28
<i>Pleuronectinae</i>	2, 3, 5, 7, 56, 107	<i>hybridus</i>	34
<i>Pleuronichthys</i>	4, 9, 56, 57, 59, 109	<i>kleinii</i>	80
<i>cenosus</i>	57, 58, 109	<i>lævis</i>	34
<i>decurrens</i>	3, 57, 58, 109	<i>cornubiensis</i>	75
<i>guttulatus</i>	59	<i>linnaei</i>	34
<i>quadriruberculatus</i>	58	<i>maculosus</i>	21
<i>verticalis</i>	3, 57, 58, 109	<i>madeirensis</i>	41
<i>Pœciliopsetta</i>	5	<i>mæoticus</i>	33
<i>Pomatopsetta</i>	15	<i>maximus</i>	33
<i>dentata</i>	16	<i>megastoma</i>	28
<i>Psetta</i>	30, 31	<i>norvegicus</i>	29
<i>maxima</i>	33	<i>nudus</i>	38
<i>rhombus</i>	34	<i>ocellatus</i>	39, 42
<i>Psettichthys</i>	2, 4, 7, 10, 17, 61, 107	<i>polus</i>	80
<i>melanostictus</i>	2, 17, 61, 107	<i>rhombitis</i>	33, 34
<i>sordidus</i>	50	<i>serratus</i>	41
<i>Psettodes</i>	11	<i>soleæformis</i>	45, 46
<i>Psettus</i>	30	<i>stellosus</i>	33
<i>Pseudopleuronectes</i>	5, 10, 62, 65, 66, 109	<i>torosus</i>	33
<i>americanus</i>	3, 65, 66, 71, 109	<i>unimaculatus</i>	26, 27
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<i>planus</i>	65	<i>vulgaris</i>	34
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<i>Scaphirhynchops</i>	74	<i>solea</i>	3, 77, 78, 79, 110
<i>Scaphirhynchus</i>	74	<i>theopnila</i>	79, 80, 81, 110
<i>Scaphorhynchus</i>	74	<i>variegata</i>	83
<i>Scophthalmus</i>	27, 30, 31	<i>variola</i>	79, 81, 110
<i>diurus</i>	67	<i>vulgaris</i>	77, 79
<i>maximus</i>	33	<i>Soleinae</i>	2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 56, 110
<i>rhombus</i>	34	<i>Solenoides</i>	96
<i>unimaculatus</i>	27	<i>Soleotalpa</i>	95
<i>Seytalina</i>	74	<i>unicolor</i>	95
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<i>achirus</i>	91	<i>micrurum</i>	3, 44, 45, 46, 47, 108
<i>angulosa</i>	79	<i>ovale</i>	45, 47, 108
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<i>aurantiaca</i>	3, 78, 80, 81, 110	<i>Symphurus</i>	5, 11, 95, 97, 98, 101, 103, 106, 111
<i>azevia</i>	79	<i>atricauda</i>	3, 98, 99, 100, 111
<i>brasiliensis</i>	78, 80, 110	<i>elongatus</i>	98, 99, 100, 111
<i>browni</i>	91, 92	<i>marginatus</i>	98, 99, 111
<i>buglossa</i>	79	<i>nebulosus</i>	98, 99, 102, 111
<i>capellonis</i>	78, 79, 110	<i>nigrescens</i>	3, 97, 98, 99, 106, 111
<i>cinerea</i>	79	<i>piger</i>	99, 102, 111
<i>cithara</i>	30	<i>plagiusa</i>	3, 98, 100, 101, 111
<i>cynoglossa</i>	76	<i>diomedeanus</i>	99, 101, 111
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<i>lascaris</i>	78, 80, 81, 110	<i>Thymalus</i>	74
<i>limanda</i>	30	<i>Thyris</i>	104
<i>linnaei</i>	79	<i>pellucidus</i>	105
<i>luctuosa</i>	80	<i>Thysanopsetta</i>	4, 9, 53, 55, 109
<i>lutea</i>	83	<i>naresi</i>	55, 109
<i>maculipinnis</i>	88	<i>Trinectes</i>	84
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<i>panamensis</i>	92	<i>Zeugopterus</i>	4, 8, 26, 27, 28, 56, 107
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III.—A REVIEW OF THE SCIÆNIDÆ OF AMERICA AND EUROPE.

BY DAVID STARR JORDAN AND CARL H. EIGENMANN.

In the present paper we have attempted to give the synonymy of the species of *Sciænidæ* found in the waters of North and South America and of Europe, together with analytical keys by which the genera and species may be distinguished. The paper is based on the collections in the museum of the University of Indiana, on a large series belonging to the National Museum, the most valuable part of this series being the collections made by Professor Gilbert at Mazatlan and Panama, and on the collections in the Museum of Comparative Zoology at Cambridge, Mass. This collection is especially rich in South American forms, and nearly all of our information regarding the South American species has been drawn from it. All the representatives of this family in the museum at Cambridge have been examined by the senior author of this paper, and for all statements regarding the South American species he is responsible.

We wish to express our special obligations to Prof. Alexander Agassiz, Director of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, and to Mr. Samuel Garman, curator of the fishes, for the free use of the material in the museum, and to Dr. Tarleton H. Bean for a loan of special desiderata from the United States National Museum. Through the aid of these two great museums we have been enabled to examine nearly all the species included in the present paper. The only species not seen by us are the following: *Cestreus obliquatus*, *Larimus stahli*, *Sciæna gilli*, *Sciæna heterolepis*, *Pachyurus francisci*, *Pachyurus schomburgki*, *Pachyrops trifilis*, *Umbrina reedi*, *Lonchurus lanceolatus*, and *Eques pulcher*, ten of the 113 species recognized.

There is room for much difference of opinion as to the proper subdivision of the *Sciænidæ* into genera. There are few families in which the various types are more definitely joined together by intermediate forms than in the present one. The subdivisions must be more or less arbitrary, or else the great bulk of all the species must be thrown into two genera, *Sciæna* and *Otolithus*. Such an arrangement, however, tends to obscure the inter-relations of the species, and so we have adopted as distinct genera all the subordinate groups which we are able to restrict and define by structural characters of some importance.

It is but fair to say, however, that the arrangement adopted is not entirely satisfactory to us. The genera recognized are not equivalent in value, and no subdivision is possible in which they can be made so. The species of *Sciæninae* with long gill-rakers (*Stelliferus*, &c.), and those with short ones (*Sciæna*, &c.) form together an almost perfect series. The characters on which the first of these groups is by us subdivided into distinct genera (dentition, armature of the preopercle, &c.) cannot apparently be used for this purpose among the *Sciænae*, as the gradation there is more perfect and the extremes less marked. It is quite true that a character may have a generic value in one section of a family and not in another, yet such generic characters of partial application should always be looked upon with question.

The *Sciænidæ* fall naturally into two suborders, which are well distinguished from each other, and, so far as we know, not connected by intermediate forms. These are the *Otolithinæ* and the *Sciæninae*. The extremes of the former group (*Seriphus*, *Archoscion*) have been of late usually set off as a distinct subfamily—*Isopisthinae*. Dr. Bleeker has even removed this group, *Isopisthinae*, from the family of *Sciænidæ* altogether. There is no warrant for this arrangement. While *Seriphus* seems quite different from the other *Otolithinæ*, *Archoscion* is intermediate between *Seriphus* and *Cestreus*, and from the latter it is scarcely to be distinguished generically, so perfect is the gradation in the series of species. At the opposite end of the series the genus *Eques* represents an aberrant form of the *Sciæninae*, and another is represented by *Aplo-dinotus* and *Pogonias*. The differences existing do not apparently require the recognition of either of these groups as subfamilies, and we refer all to the *Sciæninae*.

The *Sciæninae* constitute an irregularly graduated series, the characters changing by small and often scarcely perceptible gradations from the forms allied to *Cestreus* on the one hand to those approaching *Eques* on the other.

We begin our series with the genus *Seriphus*, which is perhaps most nearly related to the other percoid forms, and we close it with *Eques*, which stands at the opposite extreme from *Seriphus*. In passing down the series from *Nebris* and *Odontoscion*, the most *Otolithus*-like of the *Sciæninae*, to *Sciæna*, *Menticirrhus*, *Eques*, and the other extreme forms, we find, as has been already stated, no very sharp line of division. The middle line, if we may so speak, lies between *Bairdiella chrysoleuca* and *Sciæna sciera*, two species closely allied to each other.

Nothing could be more unnatural or more ineffective than the subdivision adopted by Cuvier, whereby the *Sciæninae* without barbels are divided into three groups, *Corvina*, *Johnius*, and *Sciæna*, solely on the strength of the second anal spine. This is large in *Corvina*, very feeble in *Sciæna*, and intermediate in *Johnius*. Günther's arrangement, by which the species referred to *Johnius* are divided between *Corvina* and

Sciæna, is no better, as very many of the species have this spine neither large nor small, and could as well be placed in the one group as the other. Bleeker divides this group into *Pseudosciæna*, species with the mouth oblique and the jaws subequal, the lower jaw with the teeth of the inner row enlarged, and *Johnius* with the mouth horizontal and the lower jaw included, the teeth of the lower jaw being in villiform bands. This arrangement is better than the other only in theory. The characters chosen are of more value as indicating relationship, but they cannot be applied in practice, as there are intermediate gradations of all sorts. The type of *Pseudosciæna* (*Sciæna aquila*) is in fact much more nearly related to the type of *Johnius* than to most of the species associated with it in *Pseudosciæna*.

As we proceed along the series of *Sciænidæ* from *Larimus* towards *Menticirrhus*, the following changes are notable: In the *Larimus* type the pores on the snout are small and few, and there are no distinct slits or lobes on the snout above the upper jaw; in the other type the pores become large and conspicuous, 4 to 6 in number, and the thickened snout above the upper jaw has two slits on each side, bounding two dermal lobes. The mouth becomes smaller, narrower, more horizontal as we proceed towards *Menticirrhus*, the lower jaw shorter, and the bands of teeth in both jaws more and more broad, those in the lower more decidedly villiform; the pores on the chin become larger and more numerous, the number rising from 2 to 5; the lower pharyngeals become larger, and their teeth larger and less acute; the preorbital becomes wider and more gibbous, the gill-rakers shorter, fewer, and more like tubercles; the anal fin is placed farther forward, and the spines of the fins generally are less slender; the scales, as a rule, become rougher, and the rows of scales less regular in their direction. The flesh, as a rule, becomes firmer, coarser, less agreeable in flavor, and of less value as food, but this, like some of the other characters mentioned above, is subject to much variation.

It may be noted that in some *Sciænidæ* the middle rays of the caudal are more produced in young specimens. In some also the serrations on the preopercle become weaker or even obsolete with age.

The two subfamilies recognized by us may be thus distinguished:

ANALYSIS OF THE SUBFAMILIES OF SCLÆNIDÆ.

- /a. Vertebræ typically 14 + 10, the number in the abdominal region always greater than that of the caudal; lower jaw prominent; teeth not villiform; edge of preopercle entire; second anal spine weak and adnate to the first ray; the first spine minute and often obsolete OTOLITHINÆ, I.
- aa. Vertebræ typically 10 + 14, the number in the caudal region always greater than that in the abdominal; second anal spine usually well developed and usually joined to the first soft ray by a distinct membrane SCLÆNINÆ, II.

ANALYSIS OF THE GENERA OF SCIÆNIDÆ.*

Subfamily I.—OTOLITHINÆ.

(*Sciænidæ* with the vertebræ 14 or 15 + 10 or 11, the abdominal portion of the spinal column having always more vertebræ than the caudal portion, the anal fin being posterior in its insertion; body more or less elongate, the mouth large, the lower jaw projecting, the preopercle with a crenulate, membranaceous border; snout without distinct pores or slits; preorbital narrow; gill-rakers slender, moderate, or rather long; anal fin with one or two very weak spines, the second closely connected with the first soft ray; scales small, smoothish.)

- a. Anal fin long, of 15 to 21 soft rays, its length more than half that of soft dorsal; dorsal fins more or less separated (soft dorsal and anal fins closely scaled).
- b. Teeth small, sharp, subequal, uniserial below, in a narrow band above; no canines; anal and soft dorsal with 20 to 22 rays each, the former but little shorter than the latter; dorsal fins well separated; body compressed; scales large, ctenoid; gill-rakers long and slender; caudal fin lunate. *SERIPHUS*, 1.
- bb. Teeth larger, very unequal, tip of upper jaw with one or two strong canines; enlarged teeth or canines on sides of lower jaw; anal fin shorter than soft dorsal, with 15 to 18 soft rays; dorsal fins more or less separated; body compressed; scales rather small, cycloid. *ARCHOSCION*, 2.
- aa. Anal fin moderate, or short, of 7 to 13 soft rays; its length less than half that of second dorsal; dorsal fins contiguous.
 - c. Canine teeth, if present, not lance-shaped, tapering from base to tip.
 - d. Lower jaw without canines at its tip; some of its lateral teeth sometimes enlarged; tip of upper jaw usually with canines. *CESTREUS*, 3.
 - dd. Lower jaw with a pair of very strong canines at its tip, larger than the canines at tip of upper jaw; lateral teeth small; body very slender; anal fin small; gill-rakers short. (Contains only Asiatic species.) *OTOLITHUS*.†
 - cc. Canine teeth lance-shaped, widened toward the tip, then abruptly pointed; canines of front of premaxillary largest; about two canines on front of lower jaw on each side; outer teeth of upper jaw enlarged, somewhat lance-shaped; outer teeth of lower jaw compressed; air-bladder with two horn-like processes; gill-rakers moderate, slender; (soft dorsal and anal fins scaly). *ANCYLODON*, 4.

Subfamily II.—SCIÆNINÆ.

(*Sciænidæ* with the dorsal fins contiguous, the soft dorsal being long, much longer than the anal; vertebræ 9 to 12 + 13 to 20, typically 10 + 14, the number of vertebræ in the abdominal part of the body being always less than in the caudal part.)

* For completeness' sake we include in the following analysis, besides the American genera, *Otolithus*, *Sciænoïdes*, *Collichthys*, and *Pseudotolithus*, the only well-defined genera without American representatives with which we are acquainted.

† *Otolithus* Cuvier, Règne Animal. Type, *Johnius ruber* Bloch. The characters here given are drawn from *Otolithus argenteus* (specimen from Hong-Kong, China).

- a. Dorsal spines well separated, the first dorsal spine * attached to the third or fourth interneural, not more than two* of the spine-bearing interneurals being placed between the same pair of vertebræ; soft rays of dorsal fin 17 to 32 (37 to 40 in *Lonchurus*, 45 to 50 in *Sciænoides*); occipital crest not greatly elevated.
- b. Lower pharyngeals separate.
- c. Lower jaw without barbels.
- d. Caudal fin moderately scaly, its distal portion usually more or less naked, the scales not numerous enough to give a thickened appearance to the fin.
- e. Teeth well developed, permanent in both jaws.
- f. Lower pharyngeals rather narrow; their teeth conic and mostly sharp; none of them molar; outer teeth of upper jaw more or less enlarged.
- g. Gill-rakers comparatively long and slender; mouth more or less oblique, anal fin usually (but not always) inserted posteriorly; preorbital usually narrow, flat; edge of snout above upper jaw with the pores and slits little conspicuous or obsolete.
- h. Preopercle without bony teeth or serrations, its membranaceous margin entire, crenulate or ciliate (two or three slender spinules present in *Collichthys*); teeth of lower jaw in few series.
- i. Skull excessively cavernous, soft and spongy to the touch, the interorbital space very broad; eye very small; mouth large, oblique; preopercle with a broad membranaceus border, which is striated and fringed; scales small; spinous dorsal short and weak; anal spines weak; caudal fin pointed.
- j. Pseudobranchia wanting; air-bladder with a lateral horn-like process on each side, this dividing into many branches in the skin of a peritoneal membrane; both jaws with small, unequal, canine-like teeth, those of the upper jaw in the outer, of the lower jaw in the inner series; forehead very convex; soft dorsal very long, of 27 to 50 rays; anal fin small; pectoral fin long; gill-rakers ($X + 14$) slender but rather short; lower jaw included; "vertebrae 14 + 10" (Bleeker); "vertebrae 12 + 12" (Cuv. & Val.). (Asiatic species.)

SCIÆNOIDES.[†]

* These characters (which separate the rest of the *Sciæninae* from *Eques*) have been verified in part of the genera only, and the statement of them may need some modification when the entire group is considered. The genus *Lonchurus* especially should be examined in this regard.

[†] *Sciænoides* Blyth, Journ. Asiat. Sci. Beng., 29, 1861; type *Otolithus biauritus* Cantor. The characters here given are drawn from *Sciænoides pama*. This genus seems nearest to *Nebris*, but it shows several resemblances to *Lonchurus*. If it really has vertebræ 14 + 10, as stated by Bleeker, it should be placed among the *Otolithinæ*.

- jj.* Pseudobranchia small; air-bladder with a very complex structure, having many forking branches on each side, these extending in a peritoneal membrane which surrounds the viscera; no canine teeth; dorsal rays IX-I, 25 to 30; anal rays II, 8 to II, 11; the spine small; pectoral shortish; gill-rakers slender, not very long; preopercle with two or three stiff, slender spinules near its angle; top of head very convex in all directions; occipital crest high, its edge dentate; caudal fin lanceolate. (Asiatic species.) Vertebrae 11 + 18.....**COLLICHTHYS.***
- jjj.* Pseudobranchia present; teeth subequal, all villiform, in narrow bands; soft dorsal long, of 30 to 35 rays; anal fin rather long; soft dorsal and anal scaly; lower jaw projecting; vertebrae 10+14; gill-rakers long and slender; air-bladder with two horns**NEBRIS**, 5.
- ii.* Skull firm, not excessively cavernous, interorbital space not very broad; preorbital not turgid.
- k.* Teeth minute, equal, chiefly uniserial or partly biserial above; snout very short; cleft of mouth very oblique or even vertical, the lower jaw projecting.....**LARIMUS**, 6.
- kk.* Teeth larger, more or less unequal, those in lower jaw mostly biserial, those of the inner series usually enlarged; cleft of mouth more or less oblique but not vertical.
- l.* Scales of the lateral line similar to the others, not concealed by smaller ones; anal fin inserted more or less posteriorly, its first spine usually nearer caudal than ventrals, the tip of the last ray when depressed extending beyond base of last ray of dorsal; caudal peduncle rather short; pseudobranchia well developed.
- m.* Upper jaw with a single row of teeth, some of them enlarged, forming long canines; some canines in lower jaw; lower jaw projecting**ODONTOSCIION**, 7.
- mm.* Upper jaw with a narrow band of teeth, those of the outer row more or less enlarged; no distinct canines**CORVULA**, 8.
- ll.* Scales of the lateral line considerably enlarged, almost entirely concealed by smaller ones; anal fin small, inserted well forward; its first spine usually as near ventrals as

* *Collichthys* Günther—*Hemisciana* Bleeker; type *Sciana lucida* Günther, not of Richardson. Our specimens from Swatow, China (*Collichthys lucidus* Rich.?) agree with Bleeker's account of *Hemisciana lucida* rather than with Günther's. This genus is certainly very close to *Scianoides*.

caudal; caudal fin pointed, its peduncle long and slender; soft dorsal and anal scaly; scales small; pseudobranchiæ small, often obsolete on one side. (Fluviatile species.)

PLAGIOSCION, 9.

hh. Preopercle with its bony margin armed with sharp teeth or serræ.

n. Head not very broad, the interorbital space convex, scarcely spongy.

o. Preopercle with its margin simply serrate; the lower spine not enlarged; anal fin inserted well forward; caudal peduncle slender. (Species chiefly African.)

PSEUDOTOLITHUS.*

oo. Preopercle with its lowermost spine largest, directed abruptly downward. (Soft dorsal and anal fin moderately scaly.)

BAIRDIELLA, 10.

nn. Head very broad above, the interorbital space flattish, excessively cavernous, the septa reduced to thin partitions; soft dorsal and anal fin usually densely scaly; second spine of dorsal usually thickened STELLIFERUS, 11.

gg. Gill-rakers comparatively short and thick, usually not longer than posterior nostril; anal fin inserted farther forward; snout above lower jaw with large pores, and with two more or less distinct slits on its edge; these sometimes obsolete; preorbital more or less broad; mouth more or less inferior SCLÆNA, 12.

ff. Lower pharyngeals very broad, with coarse blunt molar teeth; teeth in both jaws subequal, in broad bands; preopercle with its bony margin coarsely serrate; lower jaw included; snout with pores and slits as in *Sciæna*; gill-rakers rather short and slender RONCADOR, 13.

ee. Teeth very small, subequal, those in the lowerjaw wanting or deciduous; lower pharyngeals rather broad, with paved teeth; mouth small, inferior; snout as in *Sciæna*; preopercle entire; anal fin long, with about 12 soft rays; gill-rakers shortish, rather slender LEIOSTOMUS, 14.

dd. Caudal fin very densely scaly, the scales so closely set and so numerous as to hide the rays and to give a thickened appearance to the fin; mouth small, with very small, equal teeth in villiform bands; preorbital broad, more or less turgid; preopercle

* *Pseudotolithus* Bleeker, Poissons de la côte de Guinée, 1862, 59; type *Pseudotolithus typus*. The characters here given are taken from a species from Gambia.

sharply but finely serrate; gill-rakers very small, thickish; pores and slits on snout obsolete. (Fluviatile species.)----- **PACHYURUS**, 15.

cc. Lower jaw with one or more barbels, either at the symphysis or on the rami; snout with slits and pores as in *Sciaena*; lower jaw included; preorbital broad; lower teeth in villiform bands; gill-rakers more or less short.

p. Pseudobranchiae well developed; pectoral fin not elongate.

q. Lower jaw with slender barbels, usually several in number.

r. Barbels mostly in a tuft at the symphysis of lower jaw; mouth very small, inferior; gill-rakers minute, thickish; dorsal spines 10 or 11.

s. Preopercle sharply but finely serrate; preorbital turgid and cavernous, more or less translucent; caudal fin rhombic. (Fluviatile species.)

PACHYPOPS, 16.

ss. Preopercle without bony serræ; preorbital very broad, but less distinctly cavernous ----- **POLYCIRRHUS**, 17.

rr. Barbels chiefly lateral, along the rami of the lower jaw, usually none at the symphysis; lower pharyngeals narrow with sharp teeth.

t. Preopercle without bony serræ; dorsal spines 14; gill-rakers short, but rather slender ----- **GENYONEMUS**, 18.

tt. Preopercle with its bony margin armed with strong teeth; dorsal spines 10 or 11; gill-rakers short, thickish.

MICROPOGON, 19.

qq. Lower jaw with a single thickish barbel at its tip.

u. Air-bladder large; anal spines two; back more or less elevated; preopercle with its bony margin crenate or serrate; pectorals short, shorter than ventrals. (Free-swimming species.)

UMBRINA, 20.

uu. Air-bladder none; anal spine single, weak; back not elevated; preopercle with its membranaceous edge crenulate; pectoral fins long, longer than ventrals. (Bottom fishes.)

MENTICIRRHIUS, 21.

pp. Pseudobranchiae obsolete; body long and low; caudal pointed; pectoral fin elongate; preopercle without bony serratures.

v. Chin without barbels; a row of slender barbels along inner edge of mandible; soft dorsal with about 30 rays.

PARALONCHURUS, 22.

- vv.* Chin with two short barbels, none on sides of mandible; soft dorsal with 37 to 40 rays *LONCHURUS*, 23.
- bb.* Lower pharyngeals very large, completely united, covered with coarse blunt paved teeth; lower jaw included; snout with slits and pores, as in *Sciæna*; gill-rakers rather short.
- w.* Lower jaw with numerous barbels along the inner edge of the rami; preopercle nearly entire. (Marine species.) *POGONIAS*, 24.
- ww.* Lower jaw without barbels; preopercle obscurely serrate. (Fluviatile species.) *APLODINOTUS*, 25.
- aa.* Dorsal spines close together, the first spine attached to the first interneural, and from 5 to 12 of the spine-bearing interneurals wedged in between the high occipital crest and the neural spine of the second vertebra on the one hand, and that of the third vertebra on the other; occipital crest much elevated. Vertebrae 10 + 14.
- x.* Mouth small, low, included, the teeth subequal, in villiform bands; air-bladder simple; preopercle with its membranous edge serrulate; gill-rakers short; snout above premaxillary with slit and pores essentially as in *Sciæna*; anal fin small; soft dorsal very long, of 36 to 55 rays *EQUES*, 26.

Genus I.—SERIPHUS.

Seriphus Ayres, Proc. Cal. Acad. Nat. Sci., ii, 80, 1861 (*politus*).

TYPE: *Seriphus politus* Ayres.

This genus consists of a single species, abundant on the California coast.

It is one of the most aberrant genera in the family—as compared with the typical sciænid forms, standing at the farthest possible extreme from *Eques*, *Pogonias*, and *Menticirrhus*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF SERIPHUS.

- a.* Body moderately elongate, compressed; profile slightly depressed over the eyes; eyes large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout projecting, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large and narrow, the lower jaw more or less projecting in the adult; premaxillary anteriorly about on the level of the lower margin of the pupil; maxillary 2 in head, reaching to below posterior margin of eye; lower jaw with a knob at its symphysis which fits in a notch in the upper jaw; teeth all small, subequal; those of the lower jaw in a single series, except at the symphysis, where there are two or three series; those of the upper jaw in two series, the inner ones much recurved; gill-rakers long and slender, $\frac{2}{3}$ length of eye, 7+16; lower pharyngeals narrow, linear, fragile; scales moderate, weakly ctenoid, those about the head cycloid; lateral line straight; dorsal spines weak, the highest 3 in head; soft dorsal falcate, the anterior rays much the longer; anal similar, its base

at least as long as that of the soft dorsal; interspace between dorsals $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals 2 in head; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$; caudal lunate. Color bluish above, sides and belly bright silvery, finely punctate; vertical fins all pale yellow; base of pectorals blackish. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4; D. VIII-I, 20; A. II, 21 or 22; scales 7-65-9 **POLITUS**,

1. SERIPHUS POLITUS.

(THE QUEEN-FISH.)

Seriphus politus Ayres, Proc. Cal. Acad. Nat. Sci., ii, 80, 1861. Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18 (name only). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (San Francisco, Monterey Bay, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 48 (San Francisco southwards). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 582, 1882. Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California, north to San Diego.

The Queen-fish is common on the coast of Southern California. It reaches the length of about a foot, and is an excellent pan fish.

Genus II.—ARCHOSCIION.

Archoscion Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 17 (*analis*).

Isopisthus Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18 (*parvipinnis*).

TYPE: *Otolithus analis* Jenyns.

This genus as understood by us consists of two very closely related species (*Isopisthus*), and a third species (*Archoscion*) which is almost exactly intermediate between the typical *Isopisthus* and *Cestreus*.

The resemblance between *Archoscion remifer* and *A. analis* is so very close that the two cannot consistently be placed in separate genera. On the other hand, the affinities of *Archoscion analis* with certain species of *Cestreus* (as *C. bairdi*) are scarcely less definite. The separation of *Archoscion* from *Cestreus* and of the latter from *Otolithus* are justified chiefly by convenience.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ARCHOSCIION.

- Distance between dorsal fins about equal to diameter of eye; soft dorsal with 21 rays, its base about $1\frac{1}{2}$ times that of anal (*Isopisthus* Gill).
- Anal rays II, 19; depth 4 in length; pectorals rather long, the middle rays longest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length of head; 75 series of scales between opercle and the tail; back not elevated; head compressed; snout not prominent, scarcely longer than the eye, which is $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large, very oblique; maxillary extending slightly beyond middle of eye, 2 in head; lower jaw strongly projecting, no pores about the chin; front of premaxillaries with two (or one) strong, recurved, movable canines; sides of upper jaw with two series of minute teeth, the outer series the larger; lower jaw with one or two series of minute teeth in front, and with a single series of larger teeth and 3 to 6 moderate canines on the sides; gill-rakers 4 + 9, those near the angle rather long and slender; dorsal and anal densely covered with small scales; base of anal, $1\frac{1}{6}$ in head. Color in life: bluish gray above, grayish silvery below, top of snout and tip of lower jaw blackish; inside of mouth yellow, with black on lower lip within; lining of opercles black, bordered with pale orange; dorsals, caudal, and pectorals yellowish with fine black punctulations; axil

- brownish, the color extending on pectorals; anal white, the anterior part and the tips of most of the rays yellowish, punctate with black; a dark blotch behind the orbit and another on upper part of opercle. D.VIII-I, 20 or 21; A-II, 19; scales in the lateral line about 55. *REMIFER*, 2.
- bb.* Anal rays II, 16 or 17; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; pectorals shortish, the upper rays longest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; at least 100 series of scales from opercle to the caudal; body much compressed; upper canines very long, recurved; three canines on the sides of the lower jaw; caudal fin subtruncate; color dark plumbeous above, rest of body yellowish white; no axillary spot; an indistinct elongate dark blotch from behind the eye to middle of opercle. D. VIII-I, 21; A. II, 16 or 17; scales in the lateral line 52 to 54. *PARVIPINNIS*, 3.
- aa.* Distance between dorsals about equal to diameter of pupil; soft dorsal with about 24 rays, its base about $1\frac{1}{4}$ times that of the anal (*Archoscion*).
- c.* Body more elongate than in the other species, with longer and sharper snout; base of anal fin $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye rather smaller than in *A. remifer*, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout $4\frac{1}{2}$; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$, reaching middle of eye; gill-rakers rather long, X + 12; upper jaw with a large canine in front; two to four small canines on each side of lower jaw; dorsal and anal scaly; pectoral long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; longest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; caudal fin slightly lunate. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. IX-I, 24; A. I, 15; scales 64; color bluish, the sides and belly silvery; axil dark; opercle dusky within. *ANALIS*, 4.

2. ARCHOSCIÖN REMIFER.

Isopisthus remifer Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 320 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

This species is extremely close to *Archoscion parvipinnis*, differing only in the characters mentioned in our analysis. It may perhaps prove a geographical variety of the other.

3. ARCHOSCIÖN PARVIPINNIS.

Ancylodon parvipinnis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 84, 1830 (Cayenne). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 312, 1860 (copied).

Isopisthus parvipinnis Jordan, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1883, 289 (Cayenne, re-examination of type). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 588 (name only).

Isopisthus affinis Steindachner, Denksch. Mat. Nat. Kais. Acad. Wiss., 1879, 43, plate 2, fig. 2 (Porto Alegre).

Habitat.—Coasts of Brazil, north to Cayenne.

Only the original type of this species in the Museum of Paris has been examined by us. This seems to be identical with the species well figured by Steindachner under the name of *Isopisthus affinis*, and from Steindachner's description and figure our account has been chiefly drawn.

4. ARCHOSCIÖN ANALIS.

Otolithus analis Jenyns, Zool. Beagle, Fishes, 164, 1842 (Peru). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 307, 1860 (copied).

Otolithus peruanus Tschudi, Fauna Peruana Ichthyol., 10, 1844 (Peru).

Ancylodon altipinnis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Notizen, iii, 2, plate 1, fig. 2, 1866 (West coast South America).

Habitat.—Coast of Peru.

We have examined many specimens of this species from Callao, Peru, in the museum at Cambridge. There seems no room for doubt as to the identity of the nominal species *analis*, *peruanus*, and *altipinnis*.

The species is about as near *Cestreus* as *Isopisthus*, and its existence renders the separation of *Archoscion* as a genus from the former a matter of questionable propriety.

Genus III.—CESTREUS.

Cestreus Gronow, Cat. Fish., ed. Gray, 49, 1854 (*carolinensis* = *nebulosus*).

Cynoscion Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1862, 18 (*regalis*).

Apseudobranchus Gill, loc. cit. (*toeroe* = *acoupa*).

Atractoscion Gill, loc. cit. (*quidens*).

Otolithus species; Cuvier, Günther, &c.

TYPE: *Cestreus carolinensis* Gronow = *Otolithus nebulosus* Cuvier.

This genus is closely related to the old world genus *Otolithus*, from which it differs chiefly in the absence of canine teeth in the lower jaw. Nearly all the species referable to *Cestreus* are American.

Cynoscion, notwithstanding the existence of a prior name *Cestraeus*

We use the name *Cestreus* (*κεστρόπευς*) instead of the later name (*κεστρόπαιος*), also applied to a genus of fishes (*Mugilidae*).

The reasons for regarding the two words as different have been already given in full by Dr. Jordan in a recent review of the *Pleuronectidae*, and need not be repeated here. (See page 297 of this Report.)

ANALYSIS OF AMERICAN SPECIES OF CESTREUS.

- a. Scales not very small, the lateral line having 55 to 75 pores, the number of transverse series ranging from 55 to 75, being not much in excess of the number of pores; head compressed, not truly conical; upper jaw with distinct canines, the band of teeth in the upper jaw rather narrow, the lower teeth small and in few series in front, larger and uniserial on the sides.
- b. Soft rays of the dorsal and anal more or less closely scaled; gill-rakers comparatively long and slender, 9 to 12 on the lower part of the arch, the longest at least half the diameter of the eye.*
- c. Soft dorsal of 19 to 23 rays.
- d. Caudal fin rhombic, the middle rays considerably produced.
- e. Mouth large, extremely oblique, the maxillary reaching considerably beyond eye, its length $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body robust, deeper, heavier, and with the back more elevated than in any other of our species; anterior profile depressed above the eye, so that the snout projects; snout short, not very acute, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; head thicker than in other species, the interorbital space equal to length of

* *Cestreus obliquatus*, a species imperfectly known, belongs presumably to this group.

snout; eye $7\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary very broad, its tip 6 in head; canines two, short and stout; lateral teeth of lower jaw moderate; gill-rakers X + 10, rather long and slender, the longest $\frac{1}{4}$ eye; pseudobranchiæ often obsolete on one side; dorsal spines high, the longest $2\frac{1}{10}$ in head; soft dorsal moderately scaly, the distal half of the rays largely naked; middle rays of caudal produced; P. $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals a trifle shorter; color pale, bluish above, silvery below, axil and inside of opercle a little dusky; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 4. D. IX—I, 19; A. I, 9; scales about 65 PRÆDATORIUS, 5.

ee. Mouth moderate, not very oblique; the maxillary extending little beyond eye, its length about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head.

f. Snout short, bluntish, $4\frac{3}{8}$ in head; mouth smaller and less oblique than in most of the species, the canines quite small; the lateral teeth of lower jaw smaller and more nearly equal than in others; lower jaw a little protruding; maxillary extending to posterior margin of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers 3+10, those near the angle rather long, $\frac{2}{3}$ eye, the others rapidly shortened; eye large, $5\frac{2}{3}$ in head; soft dorsal and anal scantily scaled, the distal half largely naked, the fins rather high, the longest soft rays $2\frac{1}{8}$ in head; caudal pointed; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, not reaching tips of ventrals; color pale, with faint darker streaks along sides of back; axil pale; opercle dusky within; head $3\frac{1}{8}$; depth 4. D. X—I, 20; A. I, 8; scales 66..... ACOUPA, 6.

ff. Snout long, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary reaching a little beyond eye; pectoral shortish, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; lower jaw very prominent; lateral line becoming straight opposite front of anal; dorsal spines weak, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color uniform silvery, sides minutely punctulate; axil brown, ventrals yellowish; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. VIII—I, 21 or 22; A. II, 10; scales 10-70-23.

SQUAMIPINNIS, 7.

dd. Caudal fin lunate or subtruncate, the middle rays shorter than the upper ones.

g. Coloration nearly plain, bluish above, silvery below; anal rays II, 10, maxillary reaching a little beyond eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body rather elongate, the back somewhat elevated; head compressed, pointed, not conical; eye moderate, $6\frac{2}{3}$ in head, its width a little more than interorbital space; gill-rakers long and strong, nearly as long as eye; lateral line becoming straight under soft dorsal;

soft fins all densely covered with small scales; dorsal spines stiffish, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal spines small; ventrals 2 in head; caudal fin deeply lunate; the middle rays $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral fins $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching beyond tips of ventrals; color slaty bluish above, silvery below; body and fins everywhere with dark punctulations; tip of chin dark; fins yellowish, the upper all with dark edging; pectorals blackish on the posterior side; axil dusky; lining of opercle dark; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. IX-I, 23; A. II, 10; pores in lateral line 60; the series of scales 66.

OTHONOPTERUS, 8.

gg. Coloration not uniform, the back and sides with conspicuous continuous brown streaks along the rows of scales, those above lateral line running upward and backward, those below horizontal; belly silvery; fins plain; anal rays I, 8; body rather robust, compressed; head compressed; eye large, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate, somewhat oblique, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, not quite reaching line of posterior margin of eye; snout moderately pointed, 4 in head; canines moderate; lateral teeth of lower jaw moderate in size, rather numerous; chin projecting; interorbital space rather flattened and depressed, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers long and slender, the longest $\frac{1}{2}$ eye, 4 + 13 in number; scales large; lateral line becoming straight under front of soft dorsal; soft dorsal and anal low, densely scaled; longest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal subtruncate; pectorals longer than ventrals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal small; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 19; A. I, 8; scales 54 (pores) (52 series) *STRIATUS*, 9.

cc. Soft dorsal of 27 to 29 rays; caudal fin subtruncate, or double truncate, the middle rays but slightly produced.

h. Coloration nearly uniform silvery, somewhat darker above; snout short, scarcely longer than eye.

i. [Caudal truncale; body rather slender; eye 5 in head, the snout but little longer; maxillary reaching posterior third of eye; pectoral as long as ventral; coloration uniform silvery; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $5\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 27; A. I, 11; scales 60, scales of fins undescribed.] (*Sauvage*). *OBLIQUATUS*, 10

ii. Caudal weakly double concave; body rather deep; eye very large 4 in head, as long as snout, equal to interorbital width; body more compressed than in other species; the back

somewhat elevated; snout rather short, not very acute, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth smaller than in related species; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching to below posterior margin of pupil; gill-rakers long and slender, $4 + 9$, the longest half eye; lower pharyngeals very slender; dorsal fins contiguous; membrane of soft dorsal scaled to its tips; scales weakly ctenoid; lateral line much curved anteriorly, becoming straight under seventh dorsal spine; color grayish silvery, thickly punctulate above and on sides to level of pectorals, then abruptly silvery, a row of dark points marking the line of division; snout and tip of lower jaw blackish; mouth white within; lower fins white, upper dusky; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 27 to 29; A. II, 9 or 10; scales 6-58 to 62-7.

NOTHUS, 11.

hh. Coloration brownish silvery above, with many dark-brown spots, arranged in undulating streaks; body more or less compressed; eye moderate, 5 to 7 in head; maxillary extending to below posterior margin of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canines large; color brownish silvery, with iridescent reflections, and marked with many small, rather irregular dark-brown spots, some of which form undulating lines running upward and backward; upper fins dusky, lower yellowish.....REGALIS, 12.

x. Snout not very sharp, about $4\frac{1}{2}$ (4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$) in head; gill-rakers long and slender, usually $5 + 10$ to 12 in number; membranes of soft dorsal and anal more or less closely scaly, the scales readily deciduous; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth about $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 26 to 29; A. II, 11 to 13; scales 6-56-11.....Var. *regalis*, 12 (*a*).

xx. Snout very sharp, $3\frac{1}{4}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ in length of head; gill-rakers shorter, rather slender, $4 + 8$ or 9 in number; membrane of soft dorsal and anal with very few scales, these readily deciduous; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 24 or 25; A. II, 10 or 11; scales 5-52-8.

Var. *thalassinus*, 12 (*b*).

bb. Soft rays of the dorsal and anal scaleless; gill-rakers comparatively short and thickish, usually not longer than pupil, and but 6 to 8 on lower limb of the arch.

j. Coloration not uniform, grayish and silvery, the back with distinct darker spots, lines, or reticulations; caudal fin truncate, or slightly double concave.

k. Caudal and dorsal fins immaculate.

l. Back and sides covered with dark-brown streaks and reticulations, which obscure the ground color, especially above the lateral line; lateral line in a pale streak, bordered above and below by a darker one; lower parts silvery; fins unspotted. Body comparatively deep and compressed; head somewhat conical, the snout not very sharp, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head; maxillary extending to below margin of pupil, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; eye 7 in head; gill-rakers shortish, $3+7$; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in pectorals; pectorals about $1\frac{2}{3}$ in length of head; highest dorsal spine about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal double truncate. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{2}{3}$. D. X-I, 28; A. II, 9; scales 9-60-15.

RETICULATUS, 13.

kk. Caudal and soft dorsal fins with conspicuous round black spots; back and sides covered with similar spots smaller than the pupil, larger than those on the fins; anal fin dusky. Body moderately elongate, compressed; snout rather long and acute, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye small, 6 to 7 in head; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canines strong; gill-rakers shortish, $3+8$; lower pharyngeals narrow, with seven or eight series of sharp teeth, those of the inner series enlarged; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in ventrals, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 25 to 27. A. II, 10; scales 10-70 to 75-11.

NEBULOSUS, 14.

jj. Coloration nearly uniform bluish gray above, silvery below; no distinct spots on body or fins.

m. Caudal fin somewhat lunate in the adult, the middle rays shortest, although more or less produced in young specimens; pectoral fin short, not reaching tips of ventrals; maxillary extending beyond pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canine large, usually but one present; snout rather sharp, 4 in head; gill-rakers shortish, $4+7$; pharyngeals narrow, their teeth small, cardiform, the inner ones somewhat enlarged; color, clear steel-blue above, without stripes or spots; silvery below; a narrow dusky shade along the sides below the lateral line; axil dusky; lower fins yellowish, with dusky shading; upper fins dark; second dorsal dark edged. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 22 or 23; A. II, 10. Scales 13-75 (pores)-14, about 95 in a longitudinal series. PARVIPINNIS, 15.

mm. Caudal fin always double truncate or double concave, the middle rays somewhat produced.

- n.* Pectoral fins reaching nearly or quite to the tips of ventrals, their length more than half head.
- o.* Scales small (12-86-X), the number of pores in the lateral line about 70; head rather long, compressed and pointed; maxillary a little more than half head, reaching just past eye; lateral line becoming straight opposite the vent; body rather slender, compressed; eye large, 6 in head; premaxillaries in front, entirely below eye; canines small, two usually present; longest dorsal spine 2 in head; longest soft ray $2\frac{2}{3}$; middle rays of caudal considerably produced, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal spine rather small and stout; ventrals little more than 2 in head; pectorals $1\frac{2}{3}$. Color bluish above, silvery below, upper parts and especially the middle of the sides punctate with dark points; upper fins dark, their margins dusky, lining of opercle black; inside of mouth bright yellow in life. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. IX-I, 20; A. II, 8. Scales 12-66 (pores)-X; 86 rows of scales.

XANTHULUM, 16.

- oo.* Scales moderate (8-66-18), the pores in the lateral line about 63; head large, bluntish; the snout shorter than in *Cestreus stolzmanni*, the snout 4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $6\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary nearly half head, reaching well past eye; body rather robust; lateral line becoming straight at a point well in advance of vent; dorsal spines slender, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal double truncate, the middle rays longer than the head without snout; pectorals nearly reaching tips of ventrals, more than half length of head; second anal spine evident. Color white, somewhat bluish above. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 21; A. II, 9; scales 8-63 (pores)-18; 66 series of scales ALBUS, 17.

- nn.* Pectoral fins short, reaching little past middle of ventrals, their length not more than half head; body elongate, somewhat compressed; mouth oblique; maxillary $2\frac{1}{6}$ in head, extending to posterior margin of pupil; snout rather sharp, 4 in head; canines rather small; gill-rakers shortish, $4+7$; body comparatively slender and elongate; scales rather large, all strongly ctenoid; lateral line becoming straight just before front of second dorsal; longest dorsal spines $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal slightly falcate, the first rays

about 2 in head; caudal large and broad, double truncate; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color steel bluish above, lower parts silvery; no distinct markings. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. IX-I, 21; A. II, 9; scales 10-60 (pores)-10.

STOLZMANNI, 18.

aa. Scales very small; the number of pores in the lateral line 70 to 90, and very much less than the number of transverse rows, which is from 85 to 150; teeth of upper jaw in a rather broad band, one to four of them usually more or less canine-like, the canines generally small,* and sometimes wholly disappearing with age; lateral teeth of lower jaw not much enlarged; gill-rakers usually small and short.[†]

p. Caudal fin lunate or subtruncate; scales not very small; head more or less distinctly conical, not flattened above; soft dorsal with 21 to 23 rays.

q. Soft dorsal and anal fins wholly scaleless.

r. Pectoral fin rather long, more than half head; flesh firm; scales of sides of head not silvery; head pointed, subconical, little compressed; profile rather steep; snout sharp, rather long, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head; maxillary extending beyond pupil; anteriorly on a level with the lower margin of the pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canines small, becoming obsolete; pharyngeals long and slender, with four series of teeth, the inner series several times larger than the rest; gill-rakers short, 2+7; scales very small, those on head little imbedded and less silvery than in related species; caudal lunate, its middle rays less than half length of head; both anal spines evident, the second about half length of the rays; color bluish, little silvery; everywhere punctulate; young with three or four distinct dusky cross-bars; axil and fins dusky; a dusky blotch at base of pectoral, extending on whole inner face of the fin. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length, depth 4. D. X-I, 21 to 23; A. II, 9; scales 12-88-14 *NOBILIS*, 19.

rr. Pectoral fins short, not more than half length of head; flesh rather soft; sides of head brightly silvery; head very regularly conical, pointed, tapering, scarcely compressed; snout very acute; $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canines quite small, usually but one pres-

* Rather large in *Cestreus microlepidotus*.

† Not examined in *Cestreus microlepidotus*, of moderate length in *C. steindachneri*.

ent and this disappearing with age; eye small, $7\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary extending to behind pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body slender; subfusiform, moderately compressed; gill-rakers very short, 3+6. Scales small, all cycloid, those on head imbedded and brightly silvery; highest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals and ventrals about equal, 2 in head; caudal lunate. Color grayish above, with bright reflections; silvery below; lower part of tail golden; middle of sides with dark punctulations; inside of mouth deep orange-yellow; lining of opercle black; caudal fins dusky whitish, with more or less of dark edging; lower rays of caudal yellowish; fins otherwise translucent, unmarked; axil light brownish. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. IX-I, 21; A. II, 10. Scales 17-90-15; about 80 distinct pores in the lateral line.

PHOXOCEPHALUS, 20.

qq. Soft dorsal fin with its lower portion covered with small, caducous scales. Body compressed; head conic, more compressed than in *Cestreus phoxocephalus*; eye moderate, 5 to 6 in head; maxillary reaching nearly to posterior margin of orbit, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lower jaw much projecting; upper teeth mostly biserial; canines small, both of them present; lateral teeth of lower jaw small; gill-rakers short and slender, 2 + 7; scales small, chiefly cycloid, those on sides of head bright silvery; lateral line becoming straight above front of anal; caudal fin subtruncate; pectoral fins moderate, 2 in head; caudal weakly double truncate; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$; D. IX-I, 21 to 23; A. II, 10; scales 13-90-13, about 80 distinct pores. *LEIARCHUS*, 21.

pp. Caudal fin rhombic or S-shaped, the middle rays produced, the upper lobe usually pointed; soft dorsal with 23 to 28 rays.

s. Soft dorsal entirely naked; anal with a few scales; body long and low, spindle-shaped, the head slender, subterete, and depressed above (suggesting the form of *Elacate*); profile from snout to dorsal weakly concave; snout long, rather pointed, 4 in head; mouth large, little oblique, the lower jaw strongly projecting, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; canine teeth 2, short and thick; lateral teeth close-set, of moderate size; eye small, $8\frac{1}{2}$

in head; interorbital space flattish, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers rather short, X+8, the longest about half eye; scales on head very small and silvery; caudal S-shaped, the middle rays longest; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color plain, rather dusky, silvery below; inside of gill cavity dusky; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 5 to $5\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 28; A. I, 8. Scales 80 (pores), 125 to 130 cross-series.

VIRESCENS, 22.

s8. Soft dorsal and anal fins densely scaly throughout.

t. Sides of lower jaw without canines, the teeth all comparatively small.

u. [Scales extremely small, about 150 in a longitudinal series above the lateral line, 40 in a vertical series; snout 4 in head; eye large, $4\frac{2}{3}$; interorbital area $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary extending beyond eye; lower jaw projecting; upper jaw with 3 series of teeth; canines rather strong; lateral teeth of lower jaw not canine-like; dorsal spines slender, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal fin S-shaped; pectoral slightly longer than ventral, which is slightly more than half head; lateral line becoming straight above anal; color greenish, silvery below; head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 23; A. II, 9; scales 155 to 160; 70 pores in the lateral line.] (*Steindachner.*)

MICROLEPIDOTUS, 23.

uu. Scales not very small, about 85 to 90 in a longitudinal series above the lateral line; body rather robust, the head small and tapering; profile of head nearly straight and rapidly descending; mouth rather small, oblique, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; chin prominent; snout short, rather pointed, 6 in head; eye large, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth all comparatively small, the bands rather broad; no distinct canines in upper jaw, the usual canine scarcely longer than the teeth around it; lateral teeth of lower jaw small; scales small, those of lateral line little enlarged; lateral line less conspicuous than in *C. virescens* or *C. bairdi*, becoming straight under front of soft dorsal; gill-rakers rather long, 4+9, the longest $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; pectorals quite short, shorter than ventrals, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, their tips not reaching tips of ventrals; caudal rhombic, the upper angle pointed; color

- silvery, darker above; faint streaks along the rows of scales on the back; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4; D. X-I, 21 to 23; A. I, 9; scales 70 (pores); about 86 series.....STEINDACHNERI, 24.
- tt.* Sides of lower jaw each with 4 or 5 moderate canines (the lateral teeth being larger than in any of the other species, much as in *Isopisthus*); canines of upper jaw strong; body slender, not specially compressed; head rather slender, little compressed; the upper profile straight; the interorbital area moderate (as broad as eye) and little convex; eye large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout short, sharp, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate, not very oblique, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head and extending to beyond pupil; preorbital very narrow, not as broad as pupil; gill-rakers slender, very short and small, X+6, the longest half as long as pupil; dorsal spines slender, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal and anal densely scaled; caudal fin rhombic; pectoral fins longer than ventrals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales of lateral line enlarged, somewhat covered by smaller scales; lateral line becoming straight just before anal; color plain silvery, darker above; head $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 25; A. I, 10; scales 70 pores; 150 seriesBAIRDI, 25.

5. CESTREUS PRÆDATORIUS.

(BOCCONE.)

Cestreus prædatorius Jordan & Gilbert, sp. nov. (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

This strongly marked species was obtained by Dr. Gilbert at Panama in 1883, and by us described in MS. at the time. Our specimens were destroyed by fire, and the species has remained unnoticed. The types of the present description are three specimens, the largest nearly 2 feet in length, obtained by Professor Agassiz at Panama. These are numbered 10901 and 10902 on the register of the Museum of Comparative Zoology. The species is known to the Panama fishermen as "Bocccone."

6. CESTREUS ACOUPA.

Cheilodipterus acoupa Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 546, 1802 (Cayenne).

Cynoscion acoupa Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 588 (name only).

Lutjanus cayennensis Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 196 and 245, 1802 (Cayenne)

Otolithus cayennensis Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 309, 1860 (West Indies)

Otolithus rhomboidalis Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. 2, 1829 (based on *Lutjanus cayennensis* Lacépède).

Otolithus toeroe Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 72, plate 103, 1830, Cayenne (same type as *L. cayennensis* Lac., Surinam, Brazil, Lake Maracaibo), *ibid.*, ix, 478 (Cayenne).

Apseudobranchus toeroe Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18 (name only).

Habitat.—Surinam, Brazil.

There seems to be no reason to doubt that this is the *Otolithus toeroe* of Cuvier & Valenciennes, and this *toeroe* is based on the same typical examples as the prior names *rhomboidalis* and *cayennensis*.

As to the still earlier name *acoupa*, it seems to us that Cuvier and Valenciennes are right in referring it to a species of this group, as the caudal is rounded, the lower jaw projecting, the teeth unequal, and the second dorsal with 18 rays. As, according to the statements of these authors, the fish called "Toeroe" by the Dutch in Guiana is known as "Acoupa" by the Portuguese, this identification is highly probable. The specific name *acoupa* should then supersede *cayennensis*.

Our description of this species is taken chiefly from a specimen 14 inches long from Cachiura, Brazil (10892, M. C. Z.). Numerous other specimens are in the museum from Surinam, San Matheo, Curuça, Cachiura, and Rio Janeiro.

The statement is made by Dr. Günther that this species lacks pseudobranchiæ, and on this statement Dr. Gill has proposed for it the generic name of *Apseudobranchus*.

It is true in this as in other species of *Cestreus* that the pseudobranchiæ become smaller with age. Usually they become (in old specimens) obsolete on one side while they are perfectly evident on the other. This is the case with all the old specimens of this species which we have examined, and it is true also in several others of the larger species. The genus *Apseudobranchus* is therefore strictly synonymous with *Cestreus* and *Cynoscion*.

7. CESTREUS SQUAMIPINNIS.

Otolithus squamipinnis Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 429, 1869 (Panama).

Steindachner, Neue und Seltene Fische k. k. Zool. Mus. Wien, 37, 1879 (Panama).

Cynoscion squamipinne Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 232 (La Union, San Salvador). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 320 (La Union).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is known from a few specimens taken at La Union and Panama. Specimens obtained by Prof. Alexander Agassiz at Panama are in the museum at Cambridge.

8. CESTREUS OTHONOPTERUS.

Cynoscion squamipinnis Streets, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., vii, 49, 1877 (off San Ygnacio River, Gulf of California) (not *Otolithus squamipinnis* Günther).

Cynoscion othonopterum Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 274 (Punta San Felipe, Mexico). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 320 (copied).

Habitat.—Gulf of California.

This species is known to us from its type, a large specimen taken in the Gulf of California. The specimen—also from the Gulf—recorded by Dr. Streets under the name *squamipinnis*, seems to belong to *C. othonopterus*. The species is closely related to *C. squamipinnis*, but we believe it to be distinct.

9. CESTREUS STRIATUS.

Guatucupa Marcgrave, Hist. Brazil, 1648.

Otolithus striatus Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. 2, 1829 (based on *Guatucupa* of Marcgrave).

Otolithus guatucupa Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 75, plate 104 (Montevideo).

Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 309 (copied). Günther, Shore Fishes, 13, 1880 (mouth of the Rio de la Plata). Jenyns, Zool. Beagle, Fishes, 41, 1842 (Maldonado Bay).

Habitat.—Coasts of Brazil and Argentine Republic.

This strongly marked species much resembles the northern weakfish in coloration, but it is readily distinguished by the small number of its dorsal rays.

Our description is mainly taken from a specimen 18 inches long from Buenos Ayres (434, M. C. Z.). Other specimens are in the museum from Montevideo, Maldonado, and Buenos Ayres.

10. CESTREUS OBLIQUATUS.

Otolithus obliquatus (Valenciennes MSS.) Sauvage, Bull. Soc. Philom. Paris, iii, 209, 1879 (Martinique).

Cynoscion obliquatum Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 588 (name only).

Habitat.—Martinique.

This species is unknown to us. The increased number of dorsal rays leads us to place it in the neighborhood of *Cestreus nothus*, with which species the scanty description agrees in most respects. *C. nothus* has, however, not been recorded from the West Indies.

The following is the account published by Dr. Sauvage:

“Un *Otolithe* étiqueté dans la collection du Muséum *Otolithus obliquatus* de la main de Valenciennes, n'est pas décrit dans l'Histoire des Poissons. Voisine de l'*Otolithus thalassinus*, Holbr., cette espèce en diffère par le moins grand nombre d'écaillles à la ligne latérale et l'œil plus grand; la forme de la caudale la sépare de l'*Otolithus nothus*, Holbr., des mêmes parages. Voici la diagnose des deux exemplaires recueillis à la Martinique par M. Plée:

“D. X, 28; A. I, 11; L. lat. 60.

“Hauteur du corps contenue cinq fois un tiers, longueur de la tête trois fois et trois quarts dans la longueur totale du corps; museau un peu plus long que le diamètre de l'œil, qui est contenue cinq fois dans la longueur de la tête; mâchoire inférieure plus longue que la supérieure; des canines assez fortes à la mâchoire supérieure seulement; maxillaire arrivant au niveau du tiers postérieur de l'œil; angle du préopercule arrondi et un peu rejeté en arrière; dentelures du préopercule bien visibles, plus fortes à l'angle. Caudale tronquée; pectorales de même longueur que les ventrales. Ligne latérale assez incurvée vers le milieu de sa longueur. Coloration uniforme. Longueur du corps 0,200.”

11. CESTREUS NOTHUS.

(BASTARD SEA TROUT.)

Otolithus notus Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, 134, plate 19, fig. 1, 1860 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 308, 1860 (Jamaica).

Cynoscion notus Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 131 (Pensacola). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 607 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 580, 1882. Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 212 (St. John's River, Fla.).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of United States.

This species is rather rare at Charleston and elsewhere along our Southern coast.

It is a very well marked species, differing in numerous respects from the others, *regalis*, *thalassinus*, *nebulosus*, found in the same waters. The specimens examined by us are from Charleston.

12. CESTREUS REGALIS.

(THE WEAK-FISH, OR SQUETEAGUE; "SEA TROUT.")

[Plate I.]

a. Var. regalis.

Johnius regalis Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichthyol., 75, 1801. Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, 127, plate 18, fig. 1 (South Carolina).

Otolithus regalis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 67 (New York, New Orleans). Richardson, Faun. Bor. Amer. Fish., 68, 1836. Storer, Report Fishes Massachusetts, 33, 1839 ("no longer found on the coast"). Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., 122, plate 9, fig. 1 (Provincetown). Ayres, Fishes of Brookhaven, L. I., 259, 1842. De Kay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 71, plate 8, fig. 24, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 118, 1846 (Massachusetts). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 307, 1860.

Cynoscion regale Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18. Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 98, 1876 (Chesapeake Bay). Goode & Bean, Fishes of Essex County and Massachusetts Bay, 17, 1879 (Milk Island, Cape Ann). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 90 (Norfolk, Va.; Wood's Holl, Mass.). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 607 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 581, 1882. Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 362, plate 120, 1884 (Wood's Holl, Mass.).

Roccus comes Mitchell, Report in part Fishes New York, 26, 1814 (New York).

Labrus squeleague Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc. New York, 396, plate 2, fig. 1, 1815 (New York).

b. Var. thalassinus.

Otolithus thalassinus Holbrook, Ichth. South Carolina, 132, plate 18, fig. 2 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 308, 1860 (Gulf of Mexico).

Cynoscion thalassinus Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 581, 1882 (copied).

Habitat.—Atlantic and Gulf coast of the United States; var. *thalassinus* from Virginia to Louisiana.

The Weak-fish is one of the most valuable food-fishes of our Atlantic coast. It is caught in large numbers, and its flesh is very excellent for the table. Its flesh, like that of most species of the genus, is very tender and easily torn, hence the common name of Weak-fish.

On the Carolina coast it has received the very inappropriate name of "Sea Trout."

Specimens of the typical *regalis* are in the museum at Cambridge from various localities on the Atlantic coast, and from Mobile and "Florida Keys," on the Gulf coast. Its occurrence in the Gulf must be infrequent, as no specimens have been obtained by Dr. Jordan at Galveston, New Orleans, Pensacola, Cedar Keys, or Key West.

The form called *Otolithus thalassinus* by Holbrook has not been recognized by later collectors, and it has usually been considered identical with *C. regalis*.

A specimen lately sent to us by Mr. Silas Stearns from Pensacola seems to answer to Holbrook's description, and we have found two similar specimens in the museum at Cambridge, one (No. 438, M. C. Z.) from Pass Christian, Mississippi, the other from Hampton Roads, Virginia. The only differential characters which we have noted are given in the analysis of species. As *C. regalis* is subject to considerable variation, we have regarded *C. thalassinus* as an extreme form or variety rather than as a distinct species. It may, perhaps, be found to inhabit a different depth of water than that which the common Weak-fish frequents.

The following is a description of our specimen from Pensacola: Depth, $4\frac{2}{3}$ in length; head, $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. X - I, 24; A. II, 11; lateral line, 56; length, 12 inches.

Body compressed; not especially elevated; of about the same depth everywhere between the ventrals and the vent; caudal peduncle rather long and stout.

Head pointed, subconical; profile straight, scarcely descending; eye rather large, $1\frac{2}{5}$ in snout, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large, oblique; premaxillary anteriorly on a level with the upper margin of the pupil; maxillary extending beyond the pupil; lower jaw strongly projecting, its tip entering the profile.

Teeth of the lower jaw in two series, anteriorly in a single series; those in front small and subequal; the inner ones recurved; those of the side much larger. Teeth of the upper jaw in two series; those of the outer series scarcely decreasing in size towards the angle; those of the inner series becoming minute on the sides; canines moderate, $\frac{1}{3}$ the diameter of the eye.

Preopercle with a striated and dentated dermal margin; gill-rakers slender; those near the angle half the length of the eye.

Lower pharyngeals weak and long, grooved below; teeth at the angle several times as large as the rest, all more or less recurved; the anterior ones specially so; teeth of the upper pharyngeals unequal.

First dorsal spine inserted above the end of the first fourth of the ventrals; the spines slender; the third highest, reaching to the ninth spine, $2\frac{2}{5}$ in head; second anal spine about twice as large as the first, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in length of eye; anal rays $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; pectorals broken; ventrals

slightly less than 2 in head; soft dorsal apparently not scaly, but so mutilated that we cannot be certain of this.

Scales very weakly ctenoid; lateral line somewhat wavy anteriorly, becoming straight under the fourth or fifth dorsal ray.

Color, brownish above, lighter below; middle of sides with many dark dots; a dark blotch on upper corners of opercle and cheek; axil and inner margin of pectoral, black; spinous dorsal, black; soft dorsal and caudal, dusky; the rest of the fins pale.

The specimen from Pass Christian has no scales on dorsal or anal at present, but the marks showing their former presence on the basal parts of the fin are evident. Gill-rakers, $X+8$, the longest $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; snout $3\frac{3}{4}$ in head; D. X-I, 25; A. I, 10.

In the specimen from Hampton Roads the gill-rakers are $X+9$; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; D. X-I, 25. The coloration is essentially as in *regalis*, but in all these specimens it is more silvery, the dark markings less distinct.

13. CESTREUS RETICULATUS.

Otolithus reticulatus Günther, Proc. Zool. Soc. London, 1864, 149 (San José de Guatemala, Chiapam). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387, 388, and 430, 1869 (San José, Chiapam).

Cynoscion reticulatum Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 232 (Acapulco, Mexico). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 319 (Mazatlan; Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Mazatlan to Panama.

This is a common food-fish of the west coast of Mexico. It considerably resembles *Cestreus nebulosus*, and is similar in size, habits, and value to the latter.

14. CESTREUS NEBULOSUS.

(THE SPOTTED WEAK-FISH, OR SPOTTED "SEA TROUT.")

[Plate II.]

Labrus squalicus var. *maculatus* Mitchell, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc., 396, 1815 (New York) (not *Labrus maculatus* Bloch).

Cynoscion maculatum Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 285 (Pensacola, Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 607 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 581, 1883. Bean, Internat. Fishery Exhib. Berlin, 55, 1883 (Pensacola, Florida). Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 233 (Cedar Key, Florida). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 362, plate 120, 1884 (Norfolk, Va.).

Otolithus nebulosus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 79, 1830 (locality unknown). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 540 (note on type of Cuvier & Valenciennes).

Otolithus carolinensis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., ix, 475, 1833 (South Carolina). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 72, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 318, 1846 (copied). Holbrook, "Ichthyol. S. Carolina," 133, pl. 19, fig. 2" (S. Carolina). Giinther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 306, 1860 (New York, Lake Pontchartrain).

Cestreus carolinensis Gronow, Cat. Fish., ed. Gray, 49, 1854 (Carolina).

Cynoscion carolinensis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 377 (Beaufort). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 112 (St. John's River, Florida). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 131 (Pensacola). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 92 (St. John's River, Florida; Norfolk, Virginia; Beaufort, N. C.; Fort Macon, N. C.).

Otolithus drummondi Richardson, Faun. Bor. Am. Fish., 70, 1836 (New Orleans). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 318, 1846 (copied). Girard, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey, 12, plate vi, 1859 (New Orleans, Brazos Santiago, Indianola). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 307, 1860 (copied).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf Coast of the United States; New York to Texas.

This excellent food-fish is everywhere common on our Southern coast. The northernmost locality from which we have examined specimens is Beesley's Point, New Jersey.

The oldest specific name of the species is that of *Labrus squeleague* var. *maculatus* Mitchell. This name seems, however, to be ineligible, as there was already a *Labrus maculatus* Bloch. Next in order comes the *Otolithus nebulosus* of Cuvier & Valenciennes. This name apparently is the one which should be retained, although the later name *carolinensis* has been generally in use.

15. CESTREUS PARVIPINNIS.

(CALIFORNIA "BLUE-FISH.")

Cynoscion parvipinnis Ayres, Proc. Cal. Ac. Nat. Sci., 1861, 156 (coast of Lower California).

Cynoscion parvipinne Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 48 (San Pedro southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 274 (Guaymas, Mexico). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 320 (San Pedro, San Diego, Gulf of California). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 580, 1882. Rosa Smith, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 234 (Todos Santos Bay, Lower California). Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Otolithus magdalena Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beit., iii, 1875 (Magdalena Bay, Lower California).

Habitat.—Coasts of Lower California; Guaymas to the Santa Barbara Islands.

This species is common along the coasts of Southern California, as far north as San Pedro. It is an excellent food-fish, not inferior to its relative, the weak-fish of the Atlantic coast. As in the case of the latter species, the flesh of *Cestreus parvipinnis* is soft, and the fish does not bear transportation well.

Types of *Otolithus magdalena*, from Magdalena Bay, are preserved in the museum at Cambridge.

16. CESTREUS XANTHULUM.

Cynoscion xanthulum Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 460 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 319 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Mexico; Mazatlan.

S. Mis. 90—24

This species is not rare about Mazatlan. The specific name (*ξερθός*; *οὐλός*) is intended to allude to the yellow color of its lips and gums. It is closely related to *Cestreus albus*, a species which seems to replace it farther south.

17. CESTREUS ALBUS.

Otolithus albus Günther, Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond., 1864, 149 (Chiapam; Pauama). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 429, 1869 (Chiapam). Steindachner, Neue u. Seltene Fische k. k. Zool. Mus. Wien, 36, 1879 (Panama).

Cynoscion album Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 319 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This species is not rare at Panama. Like the others of the genus, it is a food-fish of importance. Specimens from Panama are in the museum at Cambridge.

18. CESTREUS STOLZMANNI.

Otolithus stolzmanni Steindachner, Neue u. Seltene Fische k. k. Zool. Mus. Wien, 1879, 35, plate ii, fig. 1 (Tumbez, Peru).

Cynoscion stolzmanni Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 320 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama to Peru.

This species is not rare about Panama, where specimens were obtained by Professor Gilbert. A specimen collected by Prof. Alexander Agassiz, at Panama, is in the museum at Cambridge.

19. CESTREUS NOBILIS.

(THE "WHITE SEA BASS" OF CALIFORNIA.)

Johnius nobilis Ayres, Proc. Cal. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1860, 78 (San Francisco).

Atractoscion nobilis Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila. 1862, 17 (name only). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 48 (San Francisco southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 579 and 933, 1882.

Cynoscion nobilis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (San Francisco, Monterey Bay, Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 320 (copied). Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Otolithus californiensis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 31, 1875 (Lower California).

Habitat.—Coast of California, north to San Francisco.

This species is one of the largest in size of the Sciaenoid fishes, reaching a weight of 60 to 70 pounds. Its flesh is more firm than that of most of the other species of *Cestreus*, but its quality is scarcely less delicate than that of the weak-fish.

The young fishes are somewhat different in color from the adult, being marked by two or three distinct dusky cross-bars on the back and sides. These young fishes are often taken by fishermen to be a distinct species, and called sea-trout. Such specimens have been described by Dr. Steindachner under the name of *Otolithus californiensis*. Typical examples of this nominal species, from San Diego, are in the museum at Cambridge.

20. CESTREUS PHOXOCEPHALUS.

Cynoscion phoxocephalum Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 318 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This species is not uncommon about Panama. It somewhat resembles *Cestreus nobilis*, but it is not known to reach the large size of the latter. The tapering form of the head reaches an extreme in this species, and the silvery luster of the scales is brighter than in any other.

A specimen of this species from Panama is in the museum at Cambridge.

21. CESTREUS LEIARCHUS.

Otolithus leiarchus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 78, 1830 (Brazil; Cayenne). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 308, 1860 (Bahia). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 540 (note on type of Cuvier & Valenciennes).

Habitat.—Coasts of Brazil and Guiana.

This species is known to us from the examination of the type, a dried skin of a young example in the museum at Paris. The absence of the anal spine ("leiarchus") is due to its being covered by varnish.

The description given in our analysis is taken from an example (34500, U. S. Nat. Mus.) from unknown locality (Brevoort Coll.) and from specimens from Rio Janeiro, Porto Alegre, Bahia, and Santos, in the museum at Cambridge. *C. leiarchus* is closely related to *Cestreus phoxocephalus*, but it more strongly resembles the typical *Cestrei* than the latter species does.

22. CESTREUS VIRESSENS.

Otolithus virescens Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 72, 1830 (Surinam).

Cynoscion virescens Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 588 (name only).

Otolithus microps Steindachner, Neue Fisch-Arten k. k. Museen Wien, Stuttgart, und Warschau, 38, plate viii, fig. 2, 1879 (Porto Alegre, Brazil).

Habitat.—Coasts of Guiana and Brazil.

We know this species from a specimen (4584, M. C. Z.) 18 inches long from Victoria, Brazil.

This specimen agrees well with Steindachner's description of *Otolithus microps*. The scanty account given by Cuvier and Valenciennes of *Otolithus virescens* agrees, so far as it goes, with *O. microps*, and with no other South American species known. We have been unable to find the type of *virescens* in the museum at Paris. There seems to be little reason for doubting the identity of the two. We have therefore taken the older name instead of *microps*.

23. CESTREUS MICROLEPIDOTUS.

Otolithus microlepidotus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 79, 1830 (Surinam). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 311, 1860 (copied). Steindachner, Neue und Seltene Fische k. k. Zool. Mus. Wien, 39, 1879 (Maranhão).

Cynoscion microlepidotum Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 588 (name only).

Habitat.—Coasts of Surinam and Brazil.

This species is known from the original description of Cuvier and Valenciennes and from a more detailed account given by Dr. Steindachner. It would appear to be well distinguished from all the others mentioned in this paper.

24. *CESTREUS STEINDACHNERI.*

Cestreus steindachneri Jordan, sp. nov. (Curuça, Brazil).

Habitat.—Coasts of Brazil.

The type of this species is a specimen (10922, M. C. Z.) collected at Curuça by Professor Louis Agassiz. We have taken pleasure in naming the species for our friend, Dr. Franz Steindachner, of Vienna, who has contributed more than any one else to our knowledge of the fishes of South America.

Cestreus steindachneri seems to be allied to *C. microlepidotus*, but it is readily distinguished from that species by numerous characters. It somewhat resembles *C. acoupa*, but its scales are not half as large as in that species.

25. *CESTREUS BAIRDI.*

Otolithus (?) bairdi Steindachner, Neue Fisch-Arten k. k. Museen Wien, Stuttgart, und Warschau, 40, plate i, fig. 2, 1879 (Santos, Brazil).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

We have examined a single specimen of *Cestreus bairdi*, a young example (10887, M. C. Z.) 9 inches long, from Pará.

This species has almost exactly the dentition of the species of *Archoscion*. It cannot, however, be referred to that genus, as it has the fins as in the ordinary species of *Cestreus*. The difference in the dentition is one of degree only, the lateral teeth being a little larger and more unequal than usual, and cannot be used to separate this species from the genus *Cestreus*.

Genus IV.—*ANCYLODON.*

Ancylodon Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. 1, 1817 (*jaculidens* = *aneylodon*).

TYPE: *Lonchurus ancylodon* Bloch & Schneider.

This genus contains a single species, remarkable for the large size and peculiar form of its canine teeth.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF *ANCYLODON*.

- a. Body oblong, moderately compressed, the general form about as usual in *Cestreus*; mouth oblique, the lower jaw projecting; maxillary moderate, $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; snout rather pointed, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preorbital narrow; eye $6\frac{1}{2}$ in head; large canine of upper jaw very long, lance-shaped, *i. e.*, widened toward the tip and then abruptly pointed; about two canines in front of lower jaw on each side, also lance-shaped, but much smaller; outer teeth of upper jaw enlarged and showing something of the same form; enlarged lateral teeth of lower jaw compressed; gill-rakers moderate, slender, $3 + 8$, the longest $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; caudal fin rhombic; spinous dorsal very weak; soft dorsal and anal scaly; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lateral line becoming straight before vent; color bluish above, silvery below; caudal lobe darker; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4; D. IX-I, 28; A. II, 10; scales 75 (pores), 85 rows.

ANCYLODON, 26.

26. ANCYLODON ANCYLODON.

Lonchurus ancylodon Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 102, plate 25, 1801 (Surinam). *Ancylodon jaculidens* Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 81, 1830 (Cayenne). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 311, 1860 (Surinam; West Indies). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 111 (Panama).

Ancylodon atricauda Günther, Shore Fishes of the Challenger Exp., 1880, 12 (Mouth of Rio de la Plata).

Habitat.—Both coasts of tropical America; Surinam; Panama.

We have not been able to compare any specimens of this species in good condition, from Surinam, with specimens from Panama. The original types in the museum at Paris are in poor condition, but we did not see, when examining them, any characters by which we could separate them from the specimens collected by Professor Gilbert at Panama.

Our description is taken chiefly from a specimen in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Grande do Sul. Others from Guiana, Montevideo, and Rio Janeiro are in the same collection.

The specimen described by Dr. Günther as *Ancylodon, atricauda* differs from our account only in having the head 3 in length and 31 rays in the soft dorsal. It is probably identical with *A. ancylodon*.

Genus V.—NEBRIS.

Nebris Cuvier & Valenciennes, Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 149, 1830 (*microps*).

TYPE: *Nebris microps* Cuv. & Val.

This genus is one of the most peculiar in the family. The cavernous structure of the head reaches in this genus its extreme of development, the head being more spongy to the touch than in *Stelliferus*, *Collichthys*, or *Pachypops*. But one species is known.

We retain the name *Nebris*, notwithstanding the prior *Nebria*, as we regard the two names as sufficiently distinct. The number of vertebræ in *Nebris* is 10 + 14. The genus, therefore, belongs to the *Sciæninae* and not to the *Otolithinae*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF NEBRIS.

- a. Body plump, anteriorly tapering to the slender caudal peduncle; profile straight
 head broad, heavy, extremely spongy above, eye minute, $9\frac{1}{2}$ in head, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in snout,
 4 in interorbital area; $1\frac{1}{2}$ in width of maxillary, which is very broad; mouth very
 large, oblique; lower jaw projecting, premaxillary anteriorly on a level with the
 middle of the eye; maxillary extending to below posterior margin of orbit, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in
 head; teeth all minute, those of the lower jaw in a single series; those in upper
 jaw in a band which widens backwards; tongue large and thick; head entirely
 scaly; margin of the preopercle indistinct, with a very wide membranous edge,
 which is nearly covered with scales; gill-rakers long and slender, 5 + 15; scales
 small, cycloid; lateral line little arched; the bases, at least of all the soft fins,
 densely covered with small scales; dorsal spines feeble, shorter than the dorsal
 rays; caudal lanceolate; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$; color silvery, darker
 above; pectorals dusky on their inner margin; head 3 in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D.
 VIII-I, 31; A. II-13. Scales 18-50 (pores)-18 **MICROPS**, 27.

27. NEBRIS MICROPS.

Nebris microps Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 149, plate 112, 1830 (Surinam).
 Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 316, 1860 (copiē). Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iv, 10, 1875 (Bay of Panama). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 111 (Panama).

Habitat.—Both coasts of Central America, Surinam, Panama.

The specimen from which our description is taken was obtained by Professor Gilbert at Panama, where the species is not rare.

The original type of the species, from Surinam, has been examined by us, but it is not in very good condition, and no characters distinguishing it from the Panama form were noted. No direct comparison of Atlantic and Pacific specimens has yet been made. Numerous specimens from Panama are in the museum at Cambridge.

Genus VI.—LARIMUS.

Larimus Cuvier & Valenciennes, Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 145, 1830 (*breviceps*).

Amblyscion Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 165 (*argenteus*).

Monosira Poey, Anales de Hist. Nat. Esp., 1881, 326 (*stahli*).

TYPE: *Larimus breviceps* Cuvier & Valenciennes.

This genus seems to be a very natural one, and well worthy of distinction, although it is very closely related to *Bairdiella* and other more typical Sciænoids. The short snout and oblique mouth reach an extreme in *Larimus argenteus*, but no definite generic line can be drawn between that species and the others. Besides the following, one other species, *Larimus peli* Bleeker, is known, from Guinea. The species called *Larimus auritus* (*Brachydeuterus auritus* Gill) is not a Sciænid fish at all, but allied to *Pomadasys*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LARIMUS.

- a. Dorsal with 27 to 30 soft rays; mouth extremely oblique or vertical.
- b. Mouth large, the cleft vertical; profile slightly convex, nearly horizontal; no traces of dark stripes along the rows of scales; snout very short, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye large, $4\frac{2}{3}$; profile slightly convex, little oblique; snout very short, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary not extending beyond anterior margin of pupil, 2 in head; teeth all minute; preopercle with a striated and ciliated membranaceous border; gill-rakers $\frac{2}{3}$ length of eye, $7+16$; scales on head all cycloid; highest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals a little shorter than pectorals, which are about as long as head; color plumbeous above, golden below and on sides; a black axillary spot; a large steel-blue opercular spot. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 27; A. II, 6. Scales 6-49-6 ARGENTEUS, 28.
- bb. Mouth not quite vertical; upper parts with dark streaks along the rows of scales; profile slightly convex, a little oblique; snout very short, 6 in head; eye 4; maxillary extending to below front of orbit, 2 in head; teeth in lower jaw uniserial, in upper uniserial in front, in about two series laterally; preopercle with a ciliated, membranous border; gill-rakers slender and long, $10+21$; dorsal spines weak, the highest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals a little shorter than pectorals, which are as long as head; scales large, those on head chiefly cycloid; color plumbeous-silvery, with more or less conspicuous oblique blackish streaks

- following the rows of scales above; a black axillary spot; region about pseudobranchiae dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{3}$; depth, 3. D. X-I, 28; A. II, 6. Scales 6-48-7 *BREVICEPS*, 29.
- aa.* Dorsal rays 24 to 26; mouth lower and less oblique, the snout more convex and the profile descending forwards.
- c.* [Color white, with faint streaks and without vertical dark bars; second anal spine long, nearly 2 in head; body deep; snout short, 5 in head; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large, maxillary 2 in head, lower mandible produced and curved; a pore on each side of the symphysis; gill-rakers long and slender; teeth uniserial, numerous, and very small, those of the lower jaw slightly larger; pectorals lanceolate, reaching beyond vent, slightly longer than head. Head $3\frac{1}{3}$ in length; depth 3. D. X-I, 25; A. II, 5.] (*Poey.*)
STAHLI, 30.
- cc.* Color grayish, silvery below, with about seven dark vertical cross-bars; second anal spine short, $3\frac{1}{4}$ in head. Body heavy forwards, much compressed, the back somewhat elevated; profile convex; snout very short and blunt, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye 4, about equal to the flattish interorbital area; mouth large, less oblique than in other species; tip of premaxillary on level of middle of pupil; maxillary 2 in head reaching to below posterior third of eye; lower mandible with a slight knob at its symphysis, a small pore on each side of it; teeth minute, firm, in a single series in each jaw; pharyngeal teeth all long and slender; the pharyngeal bones small and narrow, sub-triangular; gill-rakers extremely elongate, as long as eye, $12+24$; preopercle with minute cilia; third and fourth dorsal spines about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine short, one-fourth shorter than the first anal ray; scales large, ctenoid; anal and soft dorsal with a scaly sheath at base; color in life grayish olive above, with some silvery; below, clear silver white, back with 7 to 9 rather conspicuous darker vertical bars extending to below middle of sides; fins dusky-olive; anal fin and lower rays of caudal yellow, ventrals orange yellow, dusky towards tip; lower side of head very bright silvery; inside of mouth and lining of gill cavity, cheeks and opercles, with some light yellow. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length, depth 3. D. X-I, 24 to 26. A. II, 5 to 6. Scales 5-49-9 to 11 *FASCIATUS*, 31.

28. LARIMUS ARGENTEUS.

Amblyscion argenteus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 165 (West coast Central America).

Larimus argenteus Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 110 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This singular fish is not uncommon about Panama, where several specimens were obtained by Professor Gilbert. Of all the known species of *Sciænidæ* this one has the mouth most nearly vertical. There is, however, in its structure nothing to warrant its separation as a distinct genus, *Amblyscion*. Many specimens from Panama are in the museum at Cambridge.

29. LARIMUS BREVICEPS.

Larimus breviceps Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 146, pl. cxl, 1830 (Brazil, San Domingo). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 321, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 268, 1860 (San Domingo). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 425, 1869. Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan). Gilbert, loc. cit., 112 (Punta Arenas). Bean & Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 158 (Jamaica).

Habitat.—Both coasts of tropical America, north to Mazatlan and San Domingo.

We have not been able to compare directly Atlantic and Pacific examples of this species, so that we cannot be quite sure as to their identity. The specimen now before us from Jamaica has the dark streaks on the scales much less sharply defined than Mazatlan examples, but we have no other evidence of difference. Specimens entirely similar to this are in the museum at Cambridge from Brazil, Porto Rico, and from Jérémie, Hayti.

30. LARIMUS STAHLI.

Monosira stahli Poey, Fauna Puerto-Riqueña, 326, plate vi, 1881 (Porto Rico).

Habitat.—West Indian Fauna, Porto Rico.

This species is known from Poey's description and figure only. The nominal genus, *Monosira*, supposed to be distinguished by the uniserial teeth, is strictly synonymous with *Larimus*, and the species is evidently very close to *Larimus breviceps*.

A specimen of *Larimus* in the museum at Cambridge (Panama, Dr. Jones) agrees better with *L. stahli* than with *L. breviceps*. It has the mouth less oblique than in the latter, and but 24 soft rays in the dorsal fin.

31. LARIMUS FASCIATUS.

Larimus fasciatus Holbrook, Ichthyology S. Carolina, 153, plate 22, fig. 1, 1860 (Charleston). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 269, 1860 (copied). Uhler & Lagger, Fishes of Maryland, 102, 1876. Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 578, 1883.

Habitat.—South Atlantic coast of the United States.

Our specimens of this species were procured at Charleston by Mr. Charles C. Leslie. Specimens are in the museum at Cambridge, from Charleston and from Florida.

Genus VII.—ODONTOSCION.

Odontoscion Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18 (*dentex*).

TYPE: *Corvina dentex* Cuv. & Val.

As here understood, this genus consists of a single species, which may be described as a *Larimus* armed with canine teeth. It also approaches closely to *Bairdiella*, one of the species of which genus (*Bairdiella archidium*) would be placed in *Odontoscion* were it not for the plectroid spine on the preopercle.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF ODONTOSCION.

- a. Teeth in both jaws in a single series; the two front teeth in lower jaw large canines, some of the teeth on the side of the lower jaw also enlarged, canine-like; teeth of the upper jaw largest forward, smaller than those in the lower jaw; body oblong, compressed, the profile straight and rather steep; snout short, blunt, 4 in head; eye large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 in head; preopercle rounded without any distinct spines, with crenulated membranaceous margin; highest dorsal spine 2 in head; distance from first anal spine to middle of base of caudal $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; distance from vent to first anal

spine $1\frac{1}{3}$ in base of anal; mouth large, oblique, maxillary reaching beyond middle of orbit, 2 in head; preorbital very narrow, about 4 in eye; gill-rakers long and stiff, 5 + 14; lower pharyngeals small, with conical teeth; scales thin, ctenoid; soft dorsal and anal scaly; scales below lateral line in nearly horizontal series; dorsal spines long and slender, separated from soft dorsal; the spine of soft dorsal short and stout; caudal subtruncate, upper lobe longer; anal short and high, second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals half way to anal, pectorals $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; color dusky silvery, everywhere soiled with dark points, which form faint streaks along the series of scales; snout and anterior part of the chin black; upper part of base of pectoral and axil black. Head 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. XI or XII-I, 23; A. II, 8. Scales 7-49 to 52-10..... DENTEX, 32.

32. ODONTOSCION DENTEX.

(CORVINA.)

Corvina dentex Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 139, plate 109, 1830 (San Domingo).
Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 320, 1846 (copied).

Larimus dentex Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 269, 1860 (Jamaica, Trinidad).

Odontoscion dentex Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 18 (name only). Poey,
Synopsis, 325, 1868 (Cuba); Enumeratio, 49, 1875 (Cuba). Jordan, Proc. U.
S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 44 (Havana).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

This small species is generally common in the West Indies, where it is a food-fish of some importance. The numerous specimens before us are from Havana, where the species is known to the fishermen as *Corvina*.

Genus VIII.—CORVULA.

Corvula Jordan & Eigenmann, genus novum.

TYPE: *Johnius batabanus* Poey.

We propose the above name for four species of American Sciænoids, allied to *Bairdiella* in nearly all respects, but having the preopercle unarmed as in *Larimus*. The typical species is remarkable in form and coloration, but it is probably congeneric with the others with which we here associate it.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF CORVULA.

- a. Body rather short and deep; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; distance from insertion of ventrals to first anal spine about equal to depth of body; color silvery, usually with faint dusky streaks along the rows of scales.
- b. [Dorsal rays XI-I, 26; posterior dorsal rays much shorter than the anterior ones; eye very large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; dorsal outline strongly convex, somewhat elevated anteriorly; ventral outline considerably, strongly convex; snout short, 5 in head; mouth moderate, somewhat oblique, reaching to below hinder margin of pupil; tip of premaxillary little above lower margin of orbit; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in narrow bands, the outer series of the upper jaw enlarged; longest dorsal spine $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; the highest (third or fourth) dorsal ray 2 in head; base of anal and soft dorsal with a scaly sheath, the membranes with minute scales; second anal spine small, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color brownish, paler below; upper two-thirds of body with dark streaks along the rows of scales; pectoral and especially anal with dark points; base of spinous dorsal light yellow; numerous dark dots on belly, lower part of sides, and under side of head. Head 3 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 26; A. II, 10; scales 7-50-10.] (Steindachner).-..... MACROPS, 33.

- bb.* Dorsal rays X-I, 28; depth, $2\frac{3}{4}$ in length; posterior rays of soft dorsal rays higher than the anterior ones; eye small, 5 in head; dorsal outline strongly and regularly convex and elevated; ventral outline straight; snout acute, not rounded, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate, oblique, maxillary extending beyond pupil; its length $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth of the lower jaw bluntnish, in two series anteriorly, in a single series laterally; those of the inner series largest; teeth of the upper jaw in a narrow band, the outer series enlarged; preopercle with a crenulate membranous margin; gill-rakers slender, about half as long as the eye, $7+13$; dorsal spines slender, the longest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal rounded posteriorly; 16th dorsal ray highest, 2 in head; caudal convex; second anal ray $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral short and broad, slightly shorter than ventrals which are $1\frac{3}{4}$ in head; scales large, those about the head, nape, and anterior part of breast cycloid, the remainder ctenoid; color, silvery white, darker above; sides and back with rather distinct dark lines along the scales; spinous dorsal, tips of ventrals and anal dusky; upper part of head brownish; lower part of head, cheek, and breast with numerous rusty dots, base of soft dorsal and anal rusty; head $3\frac{1}{4}$ in length; depth $2\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 28; A. II, 8; scales 7-52-8. *SIALIS*, 34.
- bbb.* Dorsal rays X to XII-I, 23 to 25; depth of body about $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; form of *C. sialis*, but the body more elongate; jaws equal; outer teeth above enlarged lower teeth nearly uniserial; eye large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout bluntnish, $4\frac{1}{4}$; maxillary $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head, extending to middle of pupil; preopercle with flexible serræ; second anal spine, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head; caudal fin subtruncate. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth about $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. XII-I, 22 to 24; A. II, 9; scales about 46; color silvery, with faint streaks along the rows of scales above. *SUBLEQUALIS*,* 35.
- aa.* Body rather elongate and compressed, the depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; distance from insertion of ventrals to first anal spine half greater than depth of body; coloration dusky, with conspicuous dark streaks along the rows of scales.
- c.* Body oblong, compressed, the depth nearly uniform from ventrals to vent; profile nearly straight and horizontal; mouth rather wide; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching middle of eye; upper jaw with several series of minute teeth and an outer somewhat enlarged series; lower jaw with a single series of rather strong teeth, a pair of minute canine-like teeth at the symphysis; snout short, without pores, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; chin with 5 large pores; preopercle with a crenulate, dermal border; gill-rakers slightly longer than pupil, $5+13$; lower pharyngeals with many small teeth, some of the inner ones much elongate; eye slightly shorter than snout, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, about equal to the interorbital area; scales large, their exposed edges much striated, the striae ending in cilia; scales below lateral line in undulate, sub-horizontal series; lateral line slightly curved, becoming straight above anal; soft portions of vertical fins densely covered with scales; soft dorsal and anal with a scaly sheath at their base; dorsal caudal and anal rounded behind; ventrals slightly longer than pectorals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color coppery-grayish, with many minute brown points; scales of back and sides each with a dark spot, these forming very distinct dusky stripes along the series of scales; stripes below the lateral line mostly of continuous spots, those above broken and irregular; upper part of head and fins uniform brownish with many minute points. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. XI-I, 26; A. II, 8; scales 6-50-7. *BATABANA*, 36.

* The following is the substance of Poey's account of his *Corvina subequalis*: Body rather elongate; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout short, rounded; mouth moderate; maxillary extending to below anterior margin of pupil, the jaws subequal; teeth in fine bands, the outer series longer, and larger above than below; symphysis with four pores; preopercle finely dentate; dorsal fins separated; second dorsal spine stout; caudal with a salient angle; base of anal scaly; anal spine rather strong, its insertion rather posterior; color silvery; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ (with caudal); head $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 25; A. II, 7.

33. CORVULA MACROPS.

Corvina macrops Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 24, fig. 2, 1875 (Panama).

Sciana macrops Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 316 (copied). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 382 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

This species is apparently rare at Panama. Specimens were obtained there by Dr. Gilbert, but as these have been destroyed we have copied our diagnosis from Steindachner. We do not find the species in the museum at Cambridge.

34. CORVULA SIALIS.

Corvula sialis Jordan & Eigenmann, sp. nov. (Key West).

Habitat.—Florida Keys.

The only specimen of this species, as yet known (No. 26575, U. S. Nat. Mus.), was collected by Mr. Silas Stearns at Key West, Fla., in 1880. We give here a detailed description of this specimen:

Depth, $2\frac{2}{3}$ ($3\frac{2}{7}$ in total); head, $3\frac{1}{7}$ ($3\frac{6}{7}$ in total); D. X-I, 28; A. II, 8. Length, $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches.

Body compressed; the back elevated, regularly rounded from snout to posterior margin of soft dorsal; ventral outline almost straight from chin to first anal spine; base of anal oblique; caudal peduncle short and thick.

Profile slightly convex posteriorly, somewhat depressed over the eyes; snout rather acute, slightly longer than eye; eye $4\frac{3}{4}$ in head, $1\frac{1}{3}$ in interorbital area; preorbital one-half as wide as eye; mouth moderate; maxillary extending past pupil, its length $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; premaxillary anteriorly on level with the lower border of the orbit; lower jaw included; maxillary broad, not entirely concealed by the preorbital when the mouth is shut. Teeth of the lower jaw blunt, conical, in two series, those of the inner series much larger than those of the outer series; upper jaw with a narrow band of villiform teeth and an outer series of larger teeth, which are remote from each other and decrease in size towards the angle of the mouth.

Chin with five small pores; snout with six pores, arranged in a Δ -shaped figure.

Preopercle with a narrow, crenulate, membranous border; opercle with two scarcely distinguishable spines; scapular scale entire.

Gill-rakers moderately developed, about half as long as the eye, 5+12; pseudobranchiæ large.

Scales about the head in front of dorsal and on anterior part of breast cycloid, marked with concentric striae; those on top of the head imbedded, indistinct; scales of the body all ctenoid; membranes of caudal, anal, and soft dorsal densely covered with minute scales nearly to their tips.

First dorsal spine short, inserted over the base of the pectoral; fourth dorsal spine highest, reaching to soft dorsal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anterior

dorsal rays shorter than the middle and posterior ones; the eleventh longer than the fourth by an eye's diameter, little more than half the length of the head; soft dorsal very broadly rounded posteriorly; caudal short, broad, rounded behind; anal inserted posteriorly, the tips of the anal extending nearly as far as the tips of the dorsal; second anal spine moderate, scarcely more than two-thirds the length of the rays, little less than 3 in head; ventrals lanceolate, slightly longer than the rounded pectorals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head.

Color (in spirits), light brownish above, silvery on sides and below; the centers of the scales with many dark dots, these forming horizontal lines along the series of scales below the lateral line and oblique, irregular, often interrupted, lines above the lateral line; all the fins with dark dots; spinous dorsal dusky; soft dorsal brownish for two-fifths of its height; the other three-fifths pale; anal and tips of ventrals dusky; pectoral pale; head with many minute rusty dots; these aggregated, and forming brownish spots on the maxillary and lower part of the head.

35. CORVULA SUBÆQUALIS.

Corvina subæqualis Poey, Ann. Lyc. Nat. Hist., New York, 1875, 58 (Cuba). Poey, Enumeratio, 48, 1875 (Cuba).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

We refer two specimens from Saint Thomas to this species, although they differ in some respects from Poey's description of *Corvina subæqualis*. The specimens are in the museum at Cambridge, and are in rather poor condition. The more elongate body and the smaller number of dorsal rays distinguish *subæqualis* readily from *sialis*.

36. CORVULA BATABANA.

Johnius batabanus Poey, Memorias, ii, 184, 1860 (Batabano, Cuba); Synopsis, 324, 1868 (Cuba); Enumeratio, 49, 1875 (Cuba); Fauna Puerto-Riqueña, 327, 1881 (Porto Rico).

Larimus batabanus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 43 (Havana).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

This rare species is known to us from a single specimen, obtained by Dr. Jordan in Havana, and from several specimens sent by Professor Poey to the museum at Cambridge. Its strongly marked coloration is a very unusual trait in this family. It diverges in several ways from the other species referred by us to *Corvula*, but we think that all should be placed in one genus.

Genus IX.—PLAGIOSCIION.

Plagioscion Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 82 (a generic description only no species or type being indicated).

Diplolepis Steindachner, Beiträge zur Kenntniss der Sciaenoiden Brasiliens, 1863, 2 (*squamosissimus*; name preoccupied in *Hymenoptera*).

Plagioscion Jordan & Eigenmann (*squamosissima*).

TYPE: *Sciaena squamossissima* Heckel.

This genus consists of fresh-water Sciaenoids, inhabiting the rivers of South America. The genus seems to us a valid one, although closely allied to *Corvula* and *Pseudotolithus*, from both of which it is well distinguished by the peculiar squamation of the lateral line. This character suggested to Dr. Steindachner the name *Diplolepis*, a name which is, unfortunately, preoccupied. As no species of *Plagioscion* was named by the describer of that genus, we have hesitated as to the propriety of making use of that name. The original description of *Plagioscion* must, however, certainly have been based on some species of the present genus, as it agrees with no other American form. We have therefore retained the name given by Dr. Gill in preference to coining some new one for the group.

Like most fresh-water fishes, the species of *Plagioscion* are subject to many variations, especially in regard to the size of the second anal spine. But three of the numerous nominal species seem to us valid.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PLAGIOSCION.

- a. Second anal spine small, scarcely longer than eye, its length 4 to $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth of lower jaw with the inner series considerably enlarged; snout of moderate length, 5 in head; eye, $5\frac{1}{2}$; maxillary, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers rather long, X+12; pseudobranchiaæ usually small on one side and obsolete on the other; upper part of the preopercle crenulate on its bony margin; pectoral fin short, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; anal spine, $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $5\frac{1}{2}$, its length subject to much variation; caudal convex; ventrals filamentous at tip. Color, silvery; darker above, the axil with a large black spot. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 31 or 32. A. II, 7. Scales (large ones or pores) 49 to 53. Lower pharyngeals narrow, armed with villiform teeth..... *SQUAMOSISSIMUS*, 37.
- aa. Second anal spine large and strong, its length 2 to 3 in head.
 - b. [Teeth of lower jaw with the inner series considerably enlarged; snout very short, blunt, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; head depressed above the eyes; mouth large, rather oblique, subinferior, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching past eye; back elevated; ventral outline nearly straight; caudal peduncle slender; preorbital broad, a little narrower than eye, which is $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preopercle rounded, nearly or quite entire; teeth of outer series in upper jaw and inner series of lower notably enlarged; dorsal spines slender, the highest $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{4}$; scales all ctenoid; head $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth $3\frac{2}{3}$; D. X-I, 31 to 33. A. II, 6. Enlarged scales in lateral line about 50; about 100 in a longitudinal series above it. Color grayish above, silvery below; upper vertical fins punctate; lower fins yellowish; axil dark.] (Steindachner.) *SURINAMENSIS*, 38.
 - bb. Teeth of lower jaw subequal, those of the inner row scarcely enlarged; head very convex above, not spongy; preopercle with a broad membranous margin, which is slightly crenulate; preorbital broad, as broad as eye; mouth large, oblique, the lower jaw slightly included, the maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout bluntnish, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye 6 in head; gill-rakers X + 13, slender and moderately long, the longest about $\frac{2}{3}$ diameter of eye; outer teeth above somewhat enlarged; pectorals long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, shorter than the ventrals, which have filamentous tips; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; dorsals connected, the soft dorsal largely scaly at base; caudal rhombic, the middle rays produced. Color plain silvery, the axil dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 34 to 36. A. II, 7. Scales 49 (pores); 80 cross-series. *AURATUS*, 39.

37. PLAGIOSCION SQUAMOSISSIMUS.

- Sciæna squamosissima* Heckel, Annalen des Wiener Museum, ii, 438, 1840. Reinhardt, Videnskab. Medd. Naturhist. Forening Kjöbenhavn, 108, 1854. Steindachner, Beitr. zur Kenntniss der Fisch-Fauna Süd-America's, 1879, 3 (Amazon, Orinoco, Rio Negro).
- Pachyurus squamosissimus* Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 526, 1860 (copied).
- Diplolepis squamosissimus* Steindachner, Sciæn. Brasil., 2, 1863 (Brazil).
- ? *Sciæna rubella* Schomburgk, Naturalists' Library, Fishes of Guiana, ii, 133, 1843 (Rivers of Guiana). (D. IX, 34; A. II, 6; anal spines presumably small.)
- Johnius crouvina* Castelnau, Anim. Nouv. ou Rares de l'Amér. du Sud, Poiss., 11, plate v, fig. 1, about 1855 (Rio Crixas, Rio Araguay).
- Sciæna crouvina* Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 287, 1860 (copied).
- Johnius amazonicus* Castelnau, Anim. Nouv. ou Rares de l'Amér. du Sud, Poiss., 12, plate iv, fig. 1, about 1855 (Amazon).
- Sciæna amazonica* Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 284, 1860 (River Chapin, Pará).
- ? *Corvina monacantha* Cope,* Trans. Am. Phil. Soc., 1866, 402 (near Parimaribo, Dutch Guiana).
- ? *Sciæna monacantha* Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 587 (name only).

Habitat.—Rivers of Guiana and Brazil.

We have examined specimens of this species from Obidos, Avary, Rio Puty, Tajaparu, Iça, Coary, Rio Trombetas, and Lake Hyanuary in Brazil. Our description is chiefly taken from 10867, M. C. Z., from Obidos, and 10857 from Coary.

We regard the *Johnius amazonicus* and *Johnius crouvina* of Castelnau as identical, and we follow Dr. Steindachner in placing both in the synonymy of the earlier *Sciæna squamosissima* of Heckel. We have seen no specimens of this species from Guiana. It seems to us, however, that the scanty descriptions published of *Sciæna rubella* and *Corvina monacantha* resemble this species more than any other, although it is not impossible that both should be referred to *Plagioscion surinamensis*. If the latter should be found to be the only species of the genus in Guiana, it should stand as *Plagioscion rubellus*.

83. PLAGIOSCION SURINAMENSIS.

- Pseudosciæna surinamensis* Bleeker, Arch. Néerl. Sci. Exact. et Nat., viii, 458, 1873 (Surinam).
- Sciæna surinamensis* Steindachner, Fisch-Fauna des Cauea, 1880, 4 (Rio Cauea). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 587 (name only).
- Sciæna magdalene* Steindachner, Zur Fisch-Fauna des Magdalenen-Stroms, 6, 1878 (Rio Magdalena).
- Sciæna magdalene* Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 587 (name only).

Habitat.—Rivers of the northern part of South America.

*The following is the substance of Professor Cope's description of *Corvina monacantha*:

First ventral ray produced as a filament which reaches past the vent; pseudo-branchiae none; eyes 5 in head; depth equal to length of head; preopercle sharply serrate on its vertical margin; pharyngeal patches of teeth small, the teeth bristly; caudal fin sub lanceolate; pectorals as long as ventrals without filaments; anal spine short, single in typical specimens; color, silvery, grayish above; no spots. D. X-I, 33; A. I, 5. Scales 10-49-16.

This species is known to us from descriptions only. We can see no evident difference between the *magdalena* and the *surinamensis* as described by Steindachner and Bleeker. We therefore refer the former to the synonymy of the latter. As already stated, this may be the original *Sciæna rubella* of Schomburgk.

39. PLAGIOSCION AURATUS.

Johnius auratus Castelnau, Anim. Nouv. ou Rares de l'Amér. du Sud, 12, plate iv, fig. 2, 1855 (Rio Ucayala).

Sciæna aurata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 287, 1860 (copied).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

This species seems to be very abundant in the rivers of Brazil. We have examined specimens, old and young, from Tajapuru, Cachiura, Caneta, Pará, Rio Sao Francisco, Avary, Obidos, Rio Puty, and Teffy. A specimen (10855, M. C. Z.) from Tajapuru has especially served as the type of our description.

Genus X.—BAIRDIELLA.

Bairdiella Gill, Cat. Fish. East Coast North America, 33, 1861 (*argyroleuca*=*chrysura*).

TYPE: *Bodianus argyroleucus* Mitchell = *Dipterodon chrysurus* Lacépède.

This genus is characterized by the oblique mouth, little cavernous skull, few rows of teeth, slender gill-rakers, and the preopercle armed with a plectroid spine. It seems to us a natural group, and perhaps worthy of recognition as a distinct genus, although its relationships with *Ophioscion* and especially with *Stelliferus* are very close. The numerous species are all American, and some of them are remarkable for the great size of the second anal spine. In others, this spine is quite small. These variations among species unquestionably closely allied shows how slight is the systematic value to be attached to the size of this spine.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF BAIRDIELLA.

- a. Teeth of lower jaw unequal, mostly biserial, some of those of the inner series very slender, canine-like; two small canines on front of lower jaw, inserted on a symphyseal knob; second anal spine very small, 3 in head (species approaching *Odontoscion*).
- b. Body moderately compressed, the back little elevated; profile somewhat concave anteriorly; snout acute, slightly longer than eye; eye $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 5 in head; mouth large, terminal, very oblique; maxillary extending to below posterior margin of pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth of the upper jaw long and slender, in 3 to 4 series, the inner ones depressible backward, the outer ones enlarged and fixed; 5 or 6 distinct serræ near the angle of preopercle, the lowest a robust flattish spine directed downwards; gill-rakers slender, 6+15; longest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal fin small, its base slightly oblique; second anal spine shorter than the first rays, 3 in head; pectorals about as long as ventrals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales about the head cycloid, the rest all cte-

noid; membranes of soft dorsal and anal sealed for nearly half their height; color lustrous bluish gray above, silvery below; middle of sides with indistinct lengthwise streaks formed by clusters of dark dots in the centers of the scales; snout and tip of lower jaw blackish; a dark blotch on opercle above; sides of head bright silvery; fins light straw color; upper half of pectorals dusky; spinous dorsal finely speckled with black; axil brown above; lining of opercle black above; iris bright yellow; head 3 in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 24 or 25; A. II, 8. Scales 9-52-7 ARCHIDIUM, 40.

aa. Teeth of the lower jaw unequal, chiefly biserial, those of the inner series somewhat enlarged; no distinct canines; second anal spine moderate or large; preorbital narrow (*Bairdiella*).

c. Second anal spine moderate, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, not as long as the soft rays, not reaching to tip of last ray when depressed; mouth large, somewhat oblique, the premaxillary on the level of lower part of the eye; maxillary reaching middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body oblong, compressed, the back a little elevated, the profile depressed over the eyes; snout prominent, bluntish, as long as eye, which is $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; upper teeth in two series, the outer row slender, enlarged; lower teeth in two series, the inner larger, similar to the outer in upper jaw; preopercle serrate, the teeth near the angle larger; the lowest and largest directed downward; gill-rakers slender, rather long, $8+16$; scales on head cycloid; base of anal little oblique; ventral outline rather regularly rounded; dorsal spines slender, the highest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal long, double truncate; pectorals about as long as the ventrals, $1\frac{3}{4}$ in head; soft dorsal and anal sealed at least half their height. Color greenish above, silvery below; back and sides more or less densely punctate with dark dots (especially in northern specimens), these forming narrow, somewhat irregular streaks along the sides; fins plain, mostly yellow in life. Head 3 in length; depth 3. D. XI-I, 22; A. II, 10. Scales 8-52-8.

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cc. Second anal spine very long, nearly or quite $\frac{2}{3}$ length of head, reaching when depressed beyond the tip of the last soft ray; base of anal fin very oblique, making an abrupt angle with the straightish ventral outline.

d. Mouth terminal, very oblique, the premaxillary anteriorly on the level of the middle of the eye; body subrhomboidal and angular in outline; profile steep, slightly convex; snout short, 5 in head; mouth moderate, the maxillary reaching middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in upper jaw in two or three series, the outer considerably enlarged, all of them more or less depressible; gill-rakers long, $8+16$; dorsal spines stout, the highest about 2 in head; second anal spine enormous, larger than in any other species, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; longer than any of the rays; second anal spine and the anterior rays extending beyond the tips of the last rays; the margin of the fin concave, ventrals slightly longer than pectorals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; opercular scales and some of the scales of the cheek and top of the head ctenoid, those of the interorbital space and a few on the lower parts of the cheek and opercle cycloid; color bluish-gray above and on sides, silvery below; a dark, ill-defined bluish-gray blotch on opercle; mouth yellow within; black towards the tip of the lower jaw; spinous dorsal with black punctulations and a black margin, soft dorsal dusky yellow; caudal and anterior rays of the anal brighter yellow; caudal and membrane between anal spine and first ray with black dots; axil of pectorals and inner membrane of the upper rays of the pectoral brownish. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 23; A. II, 8. Scales 8-49-9 ENSIFERA, 42.

- dd.* Mouth not quite terminal, the premaxillary anteriorly scarcely on level of lower margin of orbit; preorbital narrow, but broader than in the preceding species.
- e.* Dorsal rays X-I, 28; dorsal spines very slender, the highest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; dorsal outline convex, especially anteriorly; ventral outline straightish; profile straightish anteriorly; eye moderate, as long as snout, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching much beyond middle of eye; teeth in the upper jaw in a narrow band, the outer series enlarged; gill-rakers $8 + 19$; basal half of soft dorsal scaly; anal spine very strong, its tip reaching past tip of last anal ray; pectorals about equal the ventrals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color grayish silvery above, silvery on sides and below; dorsal region with faint streaks produced by the darker centers of the scales; sides without dots; spinous dorsal blackish; ventrals and pectorals pale; a dark axillary spot; lining of gill cavity with dusky blotches. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 28; A. II, 8. Scales 8-51-10 *ICISTIA*, 43.
- ee.* Dorsal rays X-I, 23; dorsal spines rather stiff, the highest 2 in head; second anal spine rather strong, curved, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head, as long as first soft ray, and reaching beyond tips of other rays; body oblong, compressed, scarcely angular in outline; profile straight, rather steep, the snout short and rather acute; eye as long as snout, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate, nearly horizontal; premaxillary on level of lower part of orbit; maxillary reaching beyond middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth as in *B. icistia*; preopercle strongly serrate; gill-rakers $9 + 18$. Ventrals slightly longer than pectorals, which are $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; caudal truncate; color soiled grayish above, silvery below; faint, dark streaks along the rows of scales; spinous dorsal and anterior part of anal densely covered with dark dots; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 23; A. II, 8. Scales 7-50-8 *RONCHUS*, 44.
- zaa.* Teeth of the lower jaw subequal in a rather narrow villiform band; mouth inferior or subinferior, little oblique; preorbital broader, gill-rakers shorter, and pores and slits on snout more conspicuous than in other species. (Species approaching *Ophioscion*.)
- f.* Snout sharp, the head slender, narrow above, the interorbital space not broader than eye; anal spine very long and strong, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral fin short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; form of body irregularly rhomboidal, the base of the anal fin being oblique; profile almost straight anteriorly; eye moderate, slightly shorter than snout, $4\frac{2}{3}$ in head; snout $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large, inferior, almost horizontal, maxillary reaching beyond pupil, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; upper jaw with a band of villiform teeth and an outer series of enlarged teeth; lower teeth in a moderate band, the inner series slightly enlarged, especially in young examples; gill-rakers comparatively short, $8 + 15$; dorsal spines short and stout; slightly more than 2 in head; caudal rounded; anal spine $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; basal half of the soft dorsal and anal covered with scales; color, bluish above, silvery below, a rather broad area from snout to caudal covered with brownish dots; upper fins and anterior half of anal with many dots. Head 3 in length; depth 3; D. XI-I, 21; A. II, 8. Scales 7-51-8. *ARMATA*, 45.
- ff.* Snout bluntish; the head rather stout and broad above; the interorbital space more or less broader than eye; second anal spine stout, shortish, about half length of head.
- g.* Dorsal rays X-I, 18; scales large, about 44 in the lateral line; pectoral not longer than caudal, which is $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body rather elongate; back a little elevated and compressed; profile somewhat depressed
- S. Mis. 90—25

over eyes; snout rather truncate, about 4 in head; eye about 4 in head; lower jaw much shorter than upper; mouth horizontal, maxillary extending scarcely beyond middle of eye; teeth in upper jaw in a villiform band, the outer series somewhat enlarged; gill-rakers about as long as pupil; longest dorsal spine little more than half length of head; second anal spine about 2 in head, $\frac{1}{4}$ the height of the soft rays; caudal fin long, double truncate, the middle rays produced; ventrals reaching vent; color light reddish-brown, with dark punctulations; caudal yellow; anal almost black; lining of gill-cavity dusky; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{4}$. D. X-I, 18; A. II, 8; scales 5-44-X.

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gg. Dorsal rays X-I, 21 or 22; scales moderate, 50 to 55 in the lateral line; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; back somewhat elevated, the form of the body much as in *Sciæna scicra* and related species; preorbital broader than in other species of *Bairdiella*, $\frac{1}{2}$ width of eye; eye 5 in head; snout blantish $4\frac{2}{3}$; interorbital space $3\frac{2}{3}$; head thick, somewhat more cavernous than in related forms; premaxillary entirely below level of eye; maxillary $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth of outer series of upper jaw enlarged; lowest serræ on preopercle smaller and less turned forward than in the other species; dorsal spines rather stout, the second strong, the third longest, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in head; second anal spine shorter than the soft rays, $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; the form and size of these spines very variable; gill-rakers short and slender, X+15, the longest not as long as pupil; caudal fin double truncate; color soiled brassy, irregularly mottled, with large patches of shining golden brown; faint dark stripes along the rows of scales above, those below lateral line nearly horizontal, those above oblique; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. D. X-I, 21 or 22; A. II, 9; scales, 6-50 to 55-13....CHRYSOLEUCA, 47.

40. BAIRDIELLA ARCHIDIUM.

Odontoscion archidium Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 317 (Panama).
Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 111 (Pauama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

This species is not very common about Panama, where three specimens were taken by Dr. Gilbert. Although it bears a very strong resemblance to *Odontoscion dentex*, it should, we think, rather be placed in *Bairdiella* than in *Odontoscion*. It has the very small anal of *Odontoscion* and the spur-like preopercular spine of *Bairdiella*, while in its dentition it is intermediate.

41. BAIRDIELLA CHRYSURA.

(THE MADEMOISELLE; YELLOW-TAIL.)

[Plate III.]

Percæ punctata Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 482, 1766, in part (South Carolina) (not *Percæ punctatus* of ed. x, which is *Enneacentrus fulvus*). Bonnaterre, Encycl. Méth., 1788, 126. Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 201 (notes on Linnaean Fishes).

Bairdiella punctata Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 377 (Beaufort).

Sciæna punctata Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 280 (Pensacola; Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 570, 1883.

Dipterodon chrysurus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 64, 1802 (after Linnæus).
Sciæna chrysura Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 933, 1883. Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 233 (Cedar Key, Florida).

Bairdiella chrysura Goode, Hist. Aquat. Animi., 375, plate 126, 1884.

Bodianus argyroleucus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc. New York, 417, plate 6, fig. 3, 1815 (New York).

Corvina argyroleuca Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 105, 1830 (Martinique (?), United States). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 74, plate 18, fig. 51, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 319, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 299, 1860 (copied).

Bairdiella argyroleuca Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 113 (St. John's River, Florida). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 131 (Pensacola). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (Brunswick, Ga.; St. John's River, Florida).

Bodianus pallidus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc., 1, 420, 1815 (New York).

Homopriion xanthurus Holbrook, Ich. S. Car., ed. 1, 1856, 170, pl. 24 (not *Leiostomus xanthurus* Lacépède).

Homopriion subtruncatus Gill, Cat. Fish. E. Coast, 1861, 33 (after Holbrook).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, north to New York.

This species is very abundant on our sandy shores from Long Island to Texas. It reaches but a small size, hence, although an excellent pan fish, it has no great economic value.

Unlike most of the other species of the genus, its second anal spine is little enlarged.

The oldest name of this species, *Perca punctata* L., is not available, as there was at that time already another *Perca punctata*, also named by Linnæus. The appropriate name, *chrysura*, being next in order of date, must, therefore, be adopted.

42. BAIRDIELLA ENSIFERA.

Corvina armata Steindachner, Ich. Beitr., iii, 28, 1875 (Panama) (not of Gill).

Sciæna ensifera Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 313 (Bay of Panama). Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 112 (Punta Arenas).

Corvina fulgens Vaillant, Miss. Sci. au Mexique, 164, 1883 (Pacific coast of Mexico).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is not uncommon about Panama. Of all the American Sciænoids this species has the largest anal spine in proportion to the size of the body. The *Corvina fulgens*, lately described by Dr. Vaillant, seems to be identical with *Bairdiella ensifera*.

Numerous specimens of this species from Panama are in the museum at Cambridge. They had been wrongly identified as “*Corvina armata*” by Dr. Steindachner.

43. BAIRDIELLA ICISTIA.

(CORBINETA.)

Sciæna icistia Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 356 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 316 (Mazatlan). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Mexico, Mazatlan.

This species is rather common about Mazatlan, where numerous specimens were taken by Dr. Gilbert. It is readily distinguished from other species by the weakness of its dorsal spines, as well as by the large number of the anal rays.

44. BAIRDIELLA RONCHUS.

(RONCO; CORVINA.)

Corvina ronchus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 107, 1830 (Maracaibo; Surinam). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 320, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 299, 1860 (San Domingo, Jamaica, Bahia). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387, 1869 (Atlantic coast Central America). Cope, Ichthyol. Lesser Antilles, 471, 1870 (St. Martin).

Bairdiella ronchus Poey, Synopsis, 324, 1868 (Cuba). Poey, Enumeratio, 48, 1875 (Cuba). Poey, Fauna Puerto-Riqueña, 326, 1881 (Porto Rico).

Sciæna ronchus Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 44 (Havana).

Habitat.—Atlantic coasts of tropical America.

This species seems to be generally common in the West Indies and along the coast of Brazil.

The numerous specimens before us are from Havana. The species is called *Corvina* in the Havana markets, where it is a food-fish of some importance.

Many specimens from Rio Janeiro and from Havana are in the museum at Cambridge. There is considerable individual variation, but there seems to be no specific difference between Cuban and Brazilian examples.

A number of specimens in poor condition are also in the museum, supposed to have been obtained by Captain Perry at Vera Cruz. These have the snout longer, the eye smaller, and the fins higher than usual in *ronchus*, and they may represent a different species. In these the snout is 4 in head, the eye $4\frac{1}{2}$, the longest dorsal spines $1\frac{3}{4}$, the second anal spine $1\frac{2}{7}$. D. X-I, 24.

45. BAIRDIELLA ARMATA.

Bairdiella armata Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 164 (west coast Central America). Bean & Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 156 (Jamaica).

Corvina armata Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 428, 1869 (Pacific coast of Central America).

Sciæna armata Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 316 (Panama). Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 112 (Punta Arenas). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 276 (Panama).

Corvina acutirostris Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 28, 1875, plate 4 (Panama).

Corvina (Homopriion) acutirostris Steindachner, Zur Fisch-Fauna des Magdalenen-Stromes, 9, 1878 (Caiman on Rio Magdalena).

Habitat.—Both coasts of tropical America.

This species is not uncommon on the Pacific coast about Panama, and it is equally abundant on the Atlantic coast, where it seems to ascend the rivers.

There is no doubt of the identity of *Corvina acutirostris* with *Bairdiella armata*, the type of the latter having been examined by Dr. Gilbert.

Bairdiella armata is close to *B. ronchus*, and the character of the dentition of the lower jaw, which we have used to divide *Bairdiella* into minor groups, becomes here of slight importance.

We have examined specimens of this species from Panama, Rio Magdalena, San Matheo, Camaru, Caunavivieras, Curuça, Bahia, Pernambuco, Maranhão, and Itabapuana. The specimen from the latter locality (10837, M. C. Z.) is nearly a foot long, and has the spines a little shorter and stouter than in Panama examples.

46. BAIRDIELLA ALUTA.

Sciæna aluta Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 232 (La Union, San Salvador).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Central America.

This species is known only from the original type collected by Captain Nichols at La Union.

This specimen strongly resembles *Bairdiella chrysoleuca*, apparently differing only in the larger scales, fewer dorsal rays, longer caudal fin, and larger eyes. The two characters last mentioned may be due to youth, the type of *aluta* being smaller than any *chrysoleuca* examined by us. The other characters are possibly results of extreme variation. It is, therefore, probable that the two nominal species will prove to be identical.

47. BAIRDIELLA CHRYSOLEUCA.

Corvina chrysoleuca Günther, Fish. Central America, 387 and 427, plate 67, fig. 1, 1869 (Panama).

Sciæna chrysoleuca Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 316 (Panama).

? *Sciæna aluta* Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 232 (La Union).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

A few specimens of this species were obtained at Panama by Professor Gilbert. Two others are in the museum at Cambridge (No. 10826, from Panama). The species is quite variable, especially in the armature of its preopercle.

This species, although technically a *Bairdiella*, shows numerous affinities with *Sciæna sciera* and other species of *Ophioscion*. It marks the transition from one group of Sciænoids to the other, from those related to *Larimus* to those allied to *Sciæna*, *Pogonias*, and *Eques*.

Genus XI.—STELLIFERUS.

Les Stellifères Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. i, 1817, 283 (*stellifer*).

Stelliferus Stark, "Elements Nat. Hist., i, 459, 1828" (*stellifer*) (fide Gill).

Homopriion Holbrook, Ichth. S. Carol., 1st ed., 1856, 168 (*lanceolata*).

TYPE: *Bodianus stellifer* Bloch.

This group is composed of small species, all American, allied to *Bairdiella* and *Ophioscion*, but distinguished by the remarkably spongy and cavernous structure of the bones of the skull. The septa are reduced to the thinness of the walls of honeycomb. The skull is also very broad and much depressed between the eyes.

The generic name *Homopriion* was based on a species each of *Stelliferus* and *Bairdiella*. It was restricted by Gill to the former group, and should therefore be regarded as a synonym of *Stelliferus*. We have not examined the paper of Stark, but we understand that *Stelliferus* is a latinization of Cuvier's "Les Stellifères," based on *Bodianus stellifer*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF STELLIFERUS.

- a. Preopercle with two spines only, the upper directed backward, the lower more or less downward.
- b. Jaws subequal, the mouth very oblique; teeth of lower jaw unequal, not villiform, those of the inner series enlarged; mouth very large, oblique, the jaws equal, the snout not projecting beyond the premaxillaries, which are on the level of the eye; maxillary 2 in head, extending beyond eye; interorbital width nearly half head; preopercle with two spines only, the upper directed backward, the lower downward; body robust, subrhomboidal; profile steep, straightish; snout short, prominent, as long as eye, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth of the upper jaw anteriorly in two separated series, the outer of which is composed of enlarged teeth; posteriorly in a broad band of villiform teeth; gillrakers long and slender, scarcely shorter than eye, $21 + 27$; dorsal spines low, the first two and last two somewhat thickened, the rest slender; highest spine 2 in head; caudal rounded, shorter than head, $1\frac{1}{8}$ in head; second anal spine robust, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{6}$ in pectorals, which are slightly longer than the head; scales about head, on breast, antedorsal region, and several series along the base of the dorsals cycloid, the rest ctenoid; bases of anal and soft dorsal densely scaly; a series of scales on membrane of each spine in the dorsal fin. Color dusky above, pale below, with some silvery luster; middle of sides conspicuously punctulate; upper fins all brownish, punctulate with darker; ventrals, anal, and pectoral pale, the anal and pectoral dusped with dark points; opercle blackish within; head $3\frac{3}{8}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. XI-I, 24; A. II, 8; scale $87-48-6$ OSCITANS, 48.
- bb. Jaws not equal, the lower jaw included; mouth less oblique; teeth of lower jaw subequal, in a narrow, villiform band.
- c. Mouth large, maxillary 2 in head; lower preopercular spine directed downward and backward; body moderately deep, the anterior profile straightish and steep, a little depressed over the eyes; eye rather large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout $4\frac{1}{2}$; interorbital area broad and flattish, its width $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; head narrower and less depressed than in *S. fürthi*; mouth oblique, the lower jaw included, the premaxillary in front a little above lower edge of pupil; maxillary 2 in head, reaching to posterior margin of eye; teeth of lower jaw in a narrow band of about 3 series, those of the inner series very slightly enlarged; gillrakers extremely long and slender, about $X + 30$, the longest slightly less than eye; preopercle strongly rounded, the lower spinule directed backward and downward; scales large; lateral line becoming straight over the anal spine; caudal pointed; longest dorsal

spine $1\frac{5}{6}$ in head; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 21; A. II, 9; scales 48 (pores); color rather pale, the pectoral with dark points; gill cavity dark without..... RASTRIFER, 40.

cc. Mouth moderate, the maxillary reaching to behind pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lower spine of preopercle directed downward and forward; bones of side of head little cavernous; interorbital width more than $\frac{1}{3}$ head; mouth low, little oblique, the maxillary reaching to behind pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $4\frac{2}{3}$ in head; gill-rakers shorter and fewer than in *S. rastifer*; snout short, thick, and blunt, protruding beyond the premaxillaries which are on the level of the eye; profile steep; body rather short and deep, the back elevated; highest dorsal spine $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; second anal spine small, $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head, shorter than soft rays; ventrals $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals scarcely shorter than head; color dull silvery, darker above; lower fins pale; head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $2\frac{2}{3}$ to 3; D. XI-I, 23; A. II, 9; scales 6—46—10..... FÜRTHI, 50.

aa. Preopercle with numerous (6 to 20) serræ, those near the angle more or less enlarged; lower teeth subequal, in a narrow band.

d. Lowermost spinule of preopercle enlarged, directed downward (as in *Bairdiella*); caudal fin subtruncate; body deep, robust, moderately compressed; nuchal region compressed; profile steep, depressed over the eye, the snout projecting; head broad, flattish, and soft above, but less cavernous than in the other species; interorbital space 3 in head; a sharp ridge above orbits as in other species; snout very blunt, short, and thick, $4\frac{1}{3}$ in head; mouth oblique, the lower jaw included; maxillary reaching middle of pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers long and slender, X + 21, the longest, $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; preopercle with 6 or 7 sharp teeth above, the one at the angle enlarged and turned downward; dorsal spines moderate; second anal spine short, stoutish, $\frac{2}{3}$ length of first soft ray, 3 in head; caudal subtruncate, the upper lobe slightly produced; pectorals rather long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching beyond tips of ventrals; color soiled silvery, with faint darker streaks along the rows of scales; dorsal with dark points; other fins pale; head $3\frac{1}{4}$; depth 3; D. XIII-I, 22; A. II, 11; scales 51..... MINOR, 51.

dd. Lowermost spinule of preopercle not directed downwards; caudal fin pointed.

e. Mouth large, oblique, the maxillary 2 to $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length of head; snout very short, little projecting.

f. Preopercle with three or four spines next the angle, divergent, considerable larger than the others.

g. Pectoral fin long, $1\frac{1}{6}$ in head; body deep, compressed; head short, deep, more compressed than in related species, the interorbital space less depressed, its width $3\frac{1}{6}$ in head, the supraocular ridges less prominent; anterior profile evenly convex; eye rather large, $4\frac{1}{3}$ in head; snout very short and blunt, $4\frac{1}{6}$; mouth oblique, large, the maxillary 2 in head, reaching posterior border of eye; the premaxillary on the level of lower part of eye; preopercle very convex, forming an arc of a circle; gill-rakers long and slender, X + 18, the longest $\frac{2}{3}$ eye; dorsal spines slender, rather low, the longest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine long and rather stout, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color dull silvery, the fins not very dark; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 19; A. II, 8; scales 48 STELLIFER, 52.

gg. Pectoral fin short, about $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital space 3 in head; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; body rather slender; snout as long as eye, $4\frac{1}{2}$

in head; mouth moderate, oblique, the maxillary not quite half length of head, extending just past pupil; premaxillary in front on level of lower margin of pupil; teeth above in broad bands, the outer row enlarged; gill-rakers $13 + 22$, about $\frac{1}{3}$ length of eye; scales on head cycloid; dorsal spines slender, the first two somewhat stronger, the highest about 2 in head; caudal long, lanceolate, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine little shorter than the highest dorsal spine; first ventral ray filiform; pectoral about as long as ventral, $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head; color grayish olive above, silvery below; fins all nearly uniform dusky; the ventrals margined with white; many black dots along the sides; base of anal fin and inner lining of opercle dusky; head $3\frac{1}{4}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 20 to 23; A. II, 7 or 8; scales 5—47 to 50—8.....*LANCEOLATUS*, 53.

ff. Preopercle with numerous short, straight spinules, which decrease in size regularly from angle upwards; eye small; mouth terminal, moderate, the maxillary extending past the pupil, its length $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; premaxillaries anteriorly opposite lower margin of orbit, the snout scarcely projecting beyond them; head extremely spongy and cavernous; interorbital width less than $\frac{1}{3}$ head; profile straight; snout short, blunt, 5 in head, equal to diameter of eye; upper jaw with a band of villiform teeth, the outer series enlarged; margin of preopercle rounded, its spines all small; gill-rakers $\frac{2}{3}$ length of eye, $11 + 18$ in number; first two dorsal spines stout, the highest 2 in head; second anal spine 2 in head; pectorals as long as ventrals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales on cheeks mostly ctenoid, on top of head cycloid; color dark brownish above, everywhere soiled with dark points; a dark temporal blotch; lower jaw black within, behind the front teeth; lower fins dusky; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. XII-I, 23; A. II, 7 or 8; scales 5—48—7.....*ERICYMBIA*, 54.

ce. Mouth small, inferior, nearly horizontal; the maxillary 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; the snout thick, blunt, and protuberant, the premaxillaries entirely below the level of the eye; lower jaw cavernous.

h. Eye large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lower teeth on preopercle enlarged; preorbital moderate; its width about half diameter of eye; body moderately elongate; anterior profile straight and rather steep; interorbital area flattish, very spongy, narrower than in *S. microps*; its width $3\frac{1}{8}$ in head; snout thick, blunt, protruding, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye very large; mouth small, inferior, horizontal, the maxillary extending to posterior border of pupil, $3\frac{1}{4}$ in head; teeth as in related species, in moderate bands, those above slightly enlarged; preopercle rounded, sharply serrate, the serræ largest near the angle, some 12 of them present; gill-rakers rather long, very slender, about $X + 18$; dorsal spines slender, the longest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal less scaly than in other species, lower than in *S. microps*, the longest ray $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; second anal spine 2 in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$; color soiled grayish above, with faint dark streaks along the rows of scales; silvery below; fins somewhat punctulate; head $3\frac{3}{4}$; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. XI-I, 20; A. III, 7; scales 48.....*NASO*, 55.

hh. Eye small, 5 to 6 in head; teeth on preopercle subequal; preorbital thick and swollen, much broader than eye; body moderately elongate; snout thick, blunt, convex, and protuberant; head above less cavernous than usual in the genus, more so below; preopercle (as usual in this genus) forming the arc of a circle; mouth rather small, the maxillary 3 in head; snout 4; gill-rakers about $X + 16$, shorter than in *S. rastriifer*, about $\frac{1}{3}$ diameter of eye; no pores or

sits at end of snout; interorbital space $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; dorsal spines low, the longest $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head; soft dorsal high, the longest ray $2\frac{1}{6}$ in head; second anal spine rather large, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{6}$. Color pale, nearly plain; faint oblique streaks along the rows of scales, those below lateral line running obliquely upward and backward; scales of sides with many brown dots. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $3\frac{1}{4}$. D. X-I, 19; A. II, 8. Scales 51..... *MICROPS*, 56.

48. STELLIFERUS OSCITANS.

Sciæna oscitans Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 312 (Bay of Panama); 1882, 111 (Panama); Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 376 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This species is not uncommon about Panama; numerous specimens from that locality are in the museum at Cambridge. In the dentition and form of its mouth it differs from the other species, approaching the genus *Bairdiella*.

49. STELLIFERUS RASTRIFER.

Stelliferus rastrifer Jordan, sp. nov.

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

This species seems to be generally common on the coast of Brazil. Specimens are in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Janeiro, Santos, Maranhão, Bahia, Cachiura, and Abrolhos Islands. The specimen specially described (10815, M. C. Z.) is $5\frac{1}{2}$ inches in length and was obtained at Santos.

The species is allied to *Stelliferus fürthi*, from which it is distinguished, among other things, by the long and numerous gill-rakers (hence the name—*rastrum*, a rake).

50. STELLIFERUS FÜRTHI.

Corvina (Homoprion) fürthi Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 26, fig. 3, 1875 (Panama).

Sciæna fürthi Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 315 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

One specimen of this species was taken by Professor Gilbert at Panama. Several others from the same locality are in the museum at Cambridge.

51. STELLIFERUS MINOR.

Corvina minor Tschudi, Fauna Peruana, Ichthyol., 8, 1844 (Peru).

Sciæna minor Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 295, 1860 (copied).

Corvina (Homoprion) agassizi Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beiträge, ii, 26, 1875 (Caldera, Callao, Payta).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of South America.

The specimens of this species in the museum at Cambridge are from Callao, in Peru. There seems to be no doubt of the identity of *Corvina*

agassizi with the *Corvina minor* of Tschudi. The name *minor* was given to indicate the small size of the species as compared with *Corvina deliciosa*. The name seems a little unfortunate, as this species reaches a larger size than any other in the genus *Stelliferus*. It bears a considerable resemblance to the species of *Bairdiella*, but its nearest affinities are with *Stelliferus stellifer*.

52. STELLIFERUS STELLIFER.

Bodianus stellifer Bloch, Ichthyologia, plate 231, 1790 ("Cape of Good Hope"). Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 331, 1801 (copied).

Sciæna (Stelliferus) stellifera Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 540 (notes on type of *trispinosa*).

Corvina trispinosa, Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 109 (Brazil; Cayenne). Stein-dachner, Sciaenoiden Brasiliens, 14, 1863 (Pará).

Habitat.—Coasts of Guiana and Brazil. Our description of this species is taken from specimens in the museum at Cambridge, from Bahia.

We have also examined the original type of *Corvina trispinosa* in the museum at Paris. It is doubtless true that Bloch's type of *Bodianus stellifer* came from Surinam rather than from Africa. His figure represents some species of *Stelliferus*, and Cuvier and Günther are probably right in identifying this figure with *Corvina trispinosa*. Still this identification is not free from doubt, and it may be better to call the species *Stelliferus trispinosus*.

53. STELLIFERUS LANCEOLATUS.

Homopriion lanceolatus Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, ed. 1, 168, plate 23, 1856 (Port Royal Sound). Girard, U. S. and Mex. Bound. Survey, 11, 1859 (Saint Joseph's Island, Texas).

Sciæna lanceolata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 289, 1860 (copied). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 605 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 931, 1883.

Stelliferus lanceolatus Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 113 (Saint John's River, Florida). Bean, Internat. Fishery Exhib. Berlin, 55, 1883 (Matanzas River Inlet, Florida).

Sciæna stellifera Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 569, 1883 (Pensacola).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf Coast of the United States, Charleston to Texas.

This small fish is rather rare on our coast, the specimens seen by us being few and all from rather deep water; the one here described was obtained at Charleston by Dr. Gilbert.

54. STELLIFERUS ERICYMBIA.

Sciæna ericymba Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish. Com., 1881, 311 (Bay of Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This small species is rather common about Panama. The cavernous character of the head is more marked in this species than in any other.

55. STELLIFERUS NASO.

Stelliferus naso Jordan, MSS.

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

This species is represented in the museum at Cambridge by many young specimens from Cachiura, the longest about 4 inches in length. The label of the bottle, in Dr. Steindachner's handwriting, indicates that he has regarded it as a species distinct from *S. microps*, although he has published no description of the species.

56. STELLIFERUS MICROPS.

Corrina stellifera Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 299, 1830 (West Indies). (Not *Bodianus stellifer* Bloch.)

Corrina microps Steindachner, Ichthyol. Not., i, 6, plate ii, fig. 1, 1864 (Guiana).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil and Guiana.

The specimens of this species (4581, M. C. Z.) examined by us, were collected at Pará by Dr. Steindachner. The largest is 3½ inches in length.

Genus XII.—SCIÆNA.

Sciæna part Artedi, Genera Piscium, 1738. (Includes *umbra* and *cirrosa*.)

Sciæna Linnæus, Systema Naturæ, ed. x, 289, 1758 (*umbra*; *cirrosa*).

Johnius Bloch, Ichthyologia, x, 107, 1793 (*carutta*, &c., later restricted by Gill to *Johnius carutta*).

Sciæna Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. i, 297, 1817 (restricted to *Sciæna umbra*, a Linnæan species, and to *Sciæna aquila*, a non-Linnæan one) (not of Règne Animal, ed. ii, which is *Pseudosciæna*).

Bola Francis Hamilton, Fishes of the Ganges, 1822 (*coitor chaptis*, &c.).

Sciæna Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1829 ("umbras" = *aquila*; and of all subsequent authors except Bleeker; not of Linnæus, nor of Artedi, to both of whom *Sciæna aquila* was unknown; not of the first edition of the Règne Animal).

Corvina Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. ii, 1829 (*nigra* = *umbra*).

Cheilotrema Tschudi, Fauna Peruana, Fische, 1845, 13 (*fasciatum*).

Rhinoscion Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 85 (*saturnus*).

Pseudosciæna Bleeker, Nederland. Tijdschr. f. Dierkunde, i, 1863 (*aquila*).

Sciænops Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 30 (*ocellata*).

Ophioscion Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 164 (*typicus*).

Callaus Jordan, subgenus novum (*delicatus*).

TYPE: *Sciæna umbra* Linnæus.

We are compelled to place in a single genus the great bulk of those *Scienidæ* which have short gill-rakers, inferior mouth, and no barbels on the lower jaw. In spite of the marked differences between the extremes of the series, the intergradation in characters is so perfect that we are unable to draw any sharp distinctive lines among them. This is especially true when the Asiatic species, forming the groups called *Bola* and *Johnius*, are taken into account. It is also true that one of the species of *Bairdiella* (*chrysoleuca*) is very close to some of the members of the present group. In this case, however, there is really one

difference—the length of the gill-rakers, which, though small, is constant, and holds good in all the known species.

With a view to the discovery of a basis for generic subdivision, we have especially compared the following species: *Sciæna (Scianops) ocellata*, *Sciæna (Pseudosciæna) aquila*, *Sciæna (Bola) diacantha*, and *Sciæna (Callaus) deliciosa*. If these species could be satisfactorily arranged in different genera, it would be comparatively easy to find characters on which to detach the rather more aberrant types of *Sciæna (umbra)*, *Cheilotrema (saturna and fasciata)*, *Ophioscion*, and *Johnius*.

The four species first mentioned agree in the position of the anal fin. Its second spine is very weak in *aquila* and adnate to the first ray. It is somewhat so in the others and it is not large in any. In *Johnius (dussumieri)* it is also small, but in *Sciæna*, *Cheilotrema*, and *Ophioscion* it is considerably enlarged.

The scales are smallest in *aquila*, largest in *ocellata*, but the difference is not sharp enough to warrant generic division. In all four of the species first mentioned the preorbital is flat and rather broad, broadest in *deliciosa* (7 in head) and narrowest in *aquila*— $10\frac{1}{2}$. In the other forms it is generally still broader and more gibbous.

The slits and pores about the snout are distinct in *ocellata* and *deliciosa*, little marked in *diacantha* and nearly or quite obsolete in *aquila*. In *Johnius*, *Sciæna*, *Cheilotrema*, and *Ophioscion* these are more or less distinct.

In all the four species the mouth is of moderate size, slightly oblique, with the lower jaw included, the maxillary reaching to opposite the posterior border of the eye. The mouth is largest in *ocellata*, smallest in *aquila*. In all the others (*Ophioscion*, &c.) the mouth is still smaller. The upper teeth are nearly alike in all of these; of the four mentioned they are largest in *diacantha*, smallest in *deliciosa*. In some East Indian species (referable to *Bola*?) these teeth are still larger, some of them almost canine-like.

The lower teeth are rather large, and chiefly uniserial in *diacantha* and other species of *Bola*; in two or three rows, the inner enlarged in *deliciosa* and *aquila*; in a broad band, some of the inner enlarged in *ocellata*. In *Johnius*, *Cheilotrema*, *Sciæna*, and most of the species of *Ophioscion*, the lower teeth are in a broad band and equal.

The preopercle is sharply serrate in youth, becoming entire with age in *ocellata*. In *aquila* it is vaguely crenulate in youth, becoming finally entire. In *diacantha* it remains more or less crenulate. In *deliciosa* the preopercle is edged by fine flexible serræ. In *Ophioscion* the preopercle is always sharply serrate. In *Sciæna*, *Cheilotrema*, and *Johnius* it is always entire or at least without bony serratures.

Among the four species first mentioned, the gill-rakers are smallest in *diacantha* ($X + 7$), when they are short and thick, the longest not half the pupil. They are longest in *deliciosa*; when they are slender ($X + 12$) as long as pupil. In *aquila* and *ocellata* they are $X + 8$ or 9,

rather slender and short, about $\frac{2}{3}$ length of pupil. In most of the species of the other groups (*Ophioscion*, &c.) they are very few, short and thickish, usually not more than half the length of the pupil. The form of the body offers nothing which can be used for generic distinction, as the intergradations are very perfect. The same can be said of the form and the squamation of the fins.

We may, however, recognize for convenience' sake a number of subgenera, all but one (*Bola*) of them being represented by species occurring within our limits.

We think that there is no doubt that the generic name, *Sciæna*, should go with *Sciæna umbra* (the type of *Corvina* Cuvier), if the laws of nomenclature followed by us be admitted.

There are three members of the present family found in European waters. Two of these, *cirrosa* and *umbra*, were known to Linnæus and to Artedi, and on these the genus was primarily based. The third, *aquila*, was unknown to these authors, and could not therefore with any sort of propriety be taken as the type of a Linnæan genus. The group was first knowingly subdivided by Cuvier in 1817. First separating *cirrosa* as the type of the genus *Umbrina*, he retains in *Sciæna* proper ("les Sciènes proprement dites") two species ("Sciæna umbra L." and "Sciæna aquila nobis"). This is a perfectly proper arrangement, and of this genus, *Sciæna*, as thus restricted by Cuvier, *Sciæna umbra* must be regarded as the type.

Later, in 1829, this *Sciæna umbra* was made the type of the new genus *Corvina*, as *Corvina nigra* Cuvier, while the non-Linnæan species "aquila" was left as the type of *Sciæna*. This arrangement has been followed by nearly all recent writers, but it is manifestly inadmissible, except to authors to whom, as to Cuvier, all laws of nomenclature are subordinate to personal caprice or convenience.

Recently Dr. Bleeker has proposed to take, as the type of *Sciæna*, the *Umbrina cirrosa*, because this is the species mentioned first by Artedi. In the rules now generally followed, this matter of being placed first in the genus is not regarded as an element of any importance. The restriction proposed by Bleeker must therefore give way to the earlier one of Cuvier, and the name *Sciæna* must be regarded as synonymous with *Corvina*. There is the less to be regretted from the fact that *Corvina* has usually been regarded as a generic name for all Sciænoids with conspicuous anal spines, and members of a dozen different genera have been from time to time referred to it.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF SCIÆNA.

- a.* Preopercle, with its bony margin armed with strong persistent spines, which do not disappear with age; (caudal fin not lunate; soft dorsal and anal scaly; species of small size). (*Ophioscion* Gill.)
- b.* Caudal fin convex or lanceolate, the middle rays longest, often nearly as long as head; soft dorsal with 16 to 23 rays; head low, the snout somewhat projecting.

- c. Anterior profile of head nearly straight; maxillary about 3 in head.
- d. [Maxillary not extending to front of eye; depth of body $4\frac{1}{2}$ in total (with caudal); head $4\frac{2}{3}$; eye 4 in head; snout 3; preopercle with larger teeth at the angle; mouth longer than broad; mouth inferior, the snout extending beyond the premaxillary; teeth all alike and minute; maxillary extending to below posterior nasal opening; profile ascending uniformly to first dorsal, convex at the snout and nape; highest dorsal spine $1\frac{5}{6}$ in head; highest dorsal rays not half head; second anal spine robust, scarcely half as long as head; first anal ray $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; caudal rhomboidal $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; soft dorsal scaly for half its height; pectoral equals ventral, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; membranes of fins with numerous dark points; D. X-I, 16; A. II, 7; scales 11-52-16.] (*Steindachner.*) GILLI, 57.
- dd. Maxillary extending to opposite posterior edge of pupil; its length $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body compressed, moderately deep, the head low, subconic, acutish but blunted at tip; snout projecting, the usual slits and pores well developed; its length $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye small, $4\frac{2}{3}$ in head; mouth small, inferior, horizontal; teeth in lower jaw equal, in the upper nearly so, the outer row a little enlarged; preopercle with a vertical limb and rounded angle, the latter with about 8 rather strong teeth on it; interorbital space $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preorbital wide, about as broad as eye; gill-rakers very short, thicker than high; scales regularly arranged, those below lateral line in horizontal series; lateral line becoming straight before anal; dorsal spines rather stout, the longest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine shortish and very stout, 2 in head; longest soft ray of dorsal 3 in head; caudal rounded, shorter than head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color, soiled brassy; a faint small dark spot on each scale of back and sides, these forming dusky streaks along the rows of scales; fins all dark with dark points. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 22 to XI-I, 23; A. II, 7; scales 51. ADUSTA, 58.
- cc. Anterior profile more or less concave, especially in old examples, the head being very low and slender; caudal fin lanceolate, almost as long as head; snout short and bluntish, projecting a little beyond the premaxillaries, about as long as eye; eye $3\frac{1}{4}$ in head; mouth small, low, maxillary not extending to below middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in both jaws in moderate bands, the outer series of the upper jaw enlarged; highest dorsal spine $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal spine very thick, strong; as long as the rays, $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head; pectorals about as long as ventrals; first ventral ray filiform. Color, grayish; anal and ventral fins largely black. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 22; A. II. 7; scales 5-50-7..... TYPICA, 59.

- bb.* Caudal fin irregularly double truncate or *f*-shaped, much shorter than the head; soft dorsal with 24 or 25 rays.
- e.* Teeth in the lower jaw equal, in a broad villiform band.
- f.* Snout much projecting beyond the premaxillaries; head low, slender, blunt, somewhat spongy; body rather deep, compressed; the back considerably elevated; profile steep, concave over the head; snout shorter than the eye, which is $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth small, maxillary reaching to below middle of eye, 3 in head; outer series of teeth in the upper jaw slightly enlarged; highest dorsal spine slightly more than half length of head; anal spine moderate, shorter than the rays, $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; first ventral ray filamentous pectorals much longer than the ventrals, scarcely shorter than the head. Color, dull brown above, lighter below; upper fins brown; spinous dorsal dusky at tip; anal black; ventrals and pectorals dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3; D. XI-I, 25; A. II, 8; scales 5-51-8.....IMICEPS, 60.
- ff.* Snout scarcely projecting beyond the premaxillaries; head not very slender; body robust; profile steep; snout rather acute, somewhat longer than eye, which is about $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate; maxillary 3 in head, reaching beyond middle of orbit; teeth in broad villiform bands, the outer series in upper jaw larger; highest dorsal spines, 2 in head; caudal irregularly double truncate, the median rays longest, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; the upper angle not produced; second anal spine stout, scarcely shorter than the rays, 2 in head; pectorals as long as the ventrals, $1\frac{1}{4}$ in head. Color, steel gray above, dull silvery below, everywhere densely covered with brown points, these becoming more numerous and larger below; narrow, very distinct dark lines following the series of scales, those below the lateral line horizontal, those above extending obliquely upward and backward; fins plain; edge of the spinous dorsal and the whole of the anals and ventrals blackish. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 24; A. II, 7; scales 6-50-9.....SCIERA, 61.
- ee.* Teeth in lower jaw unequal, a series of larger ones being present besides those of the villiform band; upper lobe of caudal produced, acute, the lower lobe rounded; form of *S. sciara*; [head somewhat compressed, the snout obtuse, a little longer than eye, which is about 5 in head; premaxillaries below level of eye, the snout projecting beyond them; margin of preopercle with wide-set spinous teeth; preorbital nearly as wide as eye; maxillary reaching beyond middle of eye $3\frac{3}{4}$ in head; third dorsal spine $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine very strong, 2 in head. Color, dusky silvery, with distinct purplish brown streaks along the series of scales; fins, brown. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3; D. X-I, 25; A. II, 8; scales 6-? -15.] (*Günther*).VERMICULARIS, 62.

aa. Preopercle, with its bony margin sharply serrate in young examples, becoming entire with age; body rather elongate, not much compressed. (*Sciaenops* Gill.)

i. Caudal fin slightly concave, about half as long as head; a large black ocellus at its base above. Body elongate, rather robust, back somewhat arched; profile rather steep, somewhat convex; head long, rather low; eye small, 7 in head; snout bluntnish, rather long, 4 in head; mouth large, nearly horizontal; maxillary not quite reaching posterior border of orbit, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in both jaws in villiform bands, the outer series of the upper jaw much enlarged; lower teeth subequal; gill-rakers 5 + 7, shorter than the diameter of the pupil; longest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; second anal spine $1\frac{1}{2}$ in the longest ray, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals as long as ventrals, 2 in head; scales of the breast imbedded, cycloid; soft dorsal scaleless; color grayish-silvery, iridescent; each scale with a center of dark points, these forming rather obscure, irregular, undulating brown stripes along the rows of scales; a jet black ocellated spot about as large as eye at base of caudal above; this sometimes duplicated; the body occasionally covered with ocelli. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 24; A. II, 8. Scales 45-50-7 *OCELLATA*, 63.

aaa. Preopercle, with its bony margin entire or irregularly crenulate or ciliate, never distinctly serrate.

j. Second anal spine small and slender, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth small, the back not greatly elevated.

k. Body more or less elongate, little compressed, formed as in *Ophioscion*; teeth of lower jaw equal (*Johnius* Bloch).

l. [Caudal rhombic, its length $\frac{2}{3}$ that of head; no black ocellus at its base. Body rather elongated, the form much as in *Sciæna* (*Ophioscion*) *typica*, but the head less depressed; profile, depressed above eye; eye 4 in head, as long as the snout, which is rather long, bluntnish at tip; preorbital, $\frac{2}{3}$ length of eye; mouth moderate, horizontal; maxillary extending to below middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in many series; outer series of the upper jaw somewhat longer, those of the lower jaw all subequal; preopercle entire (in the figure); scales of the cheek cycloid; those of the opercle and body etenoid; 46 series of scales above the lateral line; 40 below it; spinous dorsal little longer than high, the spines slender, scarcely flexible, the third longest, 2 in head; soft dorsal densely scaly, the longest ray $2\frac{1}{4}$ in head; second anal spine small, little longer than the eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color, greenish or bluish gray above, silvery below; fins yellowish. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$; D. X-I, 28 or 29; A. II, 7; lateral line, 45.] (*Bleeker*). *HETEROLEPIS*, 64.

kk. Body rather elongate, considerably compressed; teeth in lower jaw unequal, those of the inner series more or less enlarged; mouth rather large; preopercle with flexible serræ.

m. Slits and pores of snout anteriorly obsolete, or nearly so (*Pseudosciæna* Bleeker).

n. Caudal peduncle long, the caudal fin subtruncate; profile rather steep, the snout pointed, 4 in head; eye small, 5 to 6; preorbital narrow, about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in eye; mouth rather large, little oblique, the maxillary reaching beyond pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth above in a narrow band, the outer enlarged; teeth in lower jaw in few series, some of those in the inner considerably larger; lower jaw included; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preopercle serrulate, the teeth all membranaceous, becoming obsolete with age; gill-rakers 4 + 8, short and slender; scales small, those below lateral line in oblique series, as well as those above; dorsal spines weak, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral short, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; second anal spine very small, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head, about half as long as soft rays, the insertion well forward; caudal subtruncate; soft dorsal scaleless. Color grayish, darker above; a gray blotch on opercle; fins reddish. Head 4 in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$; D. X-I, 26 to 29; A. II, 7. Scales 8-52 to 55-18.

AQUILA, 65.

mm. Slits and pores on snout anteriorly well developed (*Callaus* Jordan).

o. Head and body compressed, the back arched, the outline oblong-elliptical; profile straightish, rather steep; head bluntnish, the snout $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye rather large, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head, as wide as the broad preorbital; maxillary extending to middle of pupil, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth rather large, a little oblique, the lower jaw slightly included; preopercle finely and evenly serrate, the serraæ flexible and not bony; gill-rakers slender and very short, scarcely as long as pupil, X + 12 in number; teeth in moderate bands, some of the outer moderately enlarged above, some of the inner ones below, these smaller than those of the upper jaw; soft dorsal and anal scaled at base only; dorsal spines moderate; second anal spine small, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal lunate, its upper lobe the longer; pectoral long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color bluish above with faint dark horizontal streaks, following the rows of scales; axil dark; fins pale; head 3 in length; depth $3\frac{1}{10}$; D. X-I, 23; A. II, 9. Scales 50.....DELICIOSA, 66.

jj. Second anal spine long and stout, its length 2 to 3 in head; back elevated; mouth small, inferior; snout with conspicuous slits and pores.

p. Vertical fins high; membranes of dorsal and anal scaleless; caudal fin subtruncate, its middle rays the longest (*Sciæna*).

q. Dorsal spines slender and weak, the 4th to 6th subequal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in length of head; ventrals long and lanceolate, the outer rays reaching almost to vent, scarcely shorter than head; body rather short and deep, the back elevated, profile steep, depressed above the eye; ventral outline slightly arched; snout blunt,

- scarcely longer than eye, $4\frac{2}{3}$ in head; eye $5\frac{2}{3}$ in head; preorbital broad, nearly as wide as eye; mouth rather small, inferior, maxillary reaching middle of eye, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth in both jaws in broad, villiform bands, the outer series above somewhat enlarged; pharyngeal teeth all more or less conical, the inner series somewhat rounded and molar-like; gill-rakers short, flattened, $5+8$; preopercle with an irregular entire border; dorsal spines all thin and slender; middle rays of soft dorsal highest $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal subtruncate, the middle rays longest; second anal spine stout and long, about 2 in head, reaching when depressed beyond the last ray; first and second soft rays elongate $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head, the rest rapidly decreasing in length; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales strongly ctenoid, those about the head cycloid; a scaly sheath at base of anal and soft dorsal. Color dark golden, each scale with many blackish dots, these forming stripes along the rows of scales; rows of scales below lateral line undulating; membranes of dorsal spines blackish; anal black, the last two rays pale; ventrals black, their first rays with the outer border white, caudal edged with dusky below and behind. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. D. X-I, 23; A. II, 7. Scales 8-60-17 UMBRA, 67.
- pp. Vertical fins low, the membranes of the dorsal and anal closely scaled; caudal fin lunate, the upper lobe the longer. (*Cheilotrema Tschudi.*)
- r. Dorsal rays X-I, 27 or 28; snout moderately blunt; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; dorsal spines gradually shortened behind the third, which is $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head; ventrals short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body oblong, the back considerably elevated; profile steep, the nape convex; snout short and blunt, but less so than in *S. fasciata*, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye, 5; preorbital broad, nearly as wide as eye; teeth as in *Sciana umbra*, the bands broader; pharyngeal teeth all conic, the inner series enlarged; gill-rakers short, thick, $6+9$; middle rays of soft dorsal longest, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; second anal spine long and stout, $2\frac{1}{3}$ in head, not reaching nearly to tip of last ray; first anal rays scarcely elongate, about 2 in head; pectorals broad, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; all scales of head strongly ctenoid; a scaly sheath at base of anal and soft dorsal. Color blackish, with coppery luster, each scale with a cluster of dark points, an obscure, broad, pale cross-band extending downward from front of soft dorsal to tips of ventrals; fins rather dark, belly silvery, dusted with dark specks; suborbital region coppery, with round, dark dots; membrane about angle of opercle jet black; tips of ventral and anal black; young ("Corvina jacobi") with three broad longitudinal dark bands. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $2\frac{2}{3}$. D. X-I, 27; A. II, 7. Scales, 10-55 to 60-17 SATURNA, 68.

rr. Dorsal rays XI-I, 23; snout extremely short and blunt; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Body deep, the back elevated; anterior profile very steep and somewhat convex; the back a little compressed; snout low, thick, blunt, and short, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head, its pores and slits conspicuous; mouth inferior, horizontal, the maxillary reaching middle of eye, 3 in head; teeth in broad bands, the outer above somewhat enlarged; preopercle with membranaceous serræ; preorbital very broad, as broad as eye; gill-rakers very short and thick, rough, as long as high, 5 or 6 of them developed; eye $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; dorsal spines moderate, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine stout and rather shorter than in related species; longest soft ray of dorsal $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral shortish, $1\frac{2}{3}$. Color dusky, the young with two or three vague blackish cross-bands; fins all dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. XI-I, 23; A. II, 8. Scales 57.

FASCIATA, 69.

57. SCIÆNA GILLI.

Corvina gilli Steindachner, Ichthyol. Notizen, vi, 29, 1867 (Rio de la Plata).

Habitat.—Atlantic coast of South America.

We know this species from the account given by Dr. Steindachner. It is very close to *Sciæna adusta*, and may prove to be the same, but the description seems to indicate some differences.

58. SCIÆNA ADUSTA.

Sciæna (Corvina) adusta Agassiz, Spix Pisc. Bras., 126, plate 70, 1829 (Montevideo).

Jenyns, Zool. Beagle, Fishes, 42, 1842 (Maldonado; Montevideo). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 289, 1860 (South America).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil and the West Indies.

We refer to this species several specimens in the museum at Cambridge from Pernambuco, Fonteboa, and Jérémie, Hayti. Our description is drawn chiefly from the largest example (22417, M. C. Z., 7 inches long) collected at Pernambuco by Rev. J. C. Fletcher. These specimens agree almost perfectly with the figure of *Sciæna adusta*, given by Agassiz, the only discrepancy being that the second anal spine is a little longer than is shown in the figure. They agree fairly with the descriptions of Jenyns and Günther, except in the number of rays in the soft dorsal. In Agassiz's text, as well as by Jenyns and Günther, 28 soft rays are enumerated. We count 22 and 23 in different specimens. But in Agassiz's plate but 19 or 20 are shown, and it has occurred to us that the number 28 in the description was a misprint for 18 or for 20, and that possibly this number, 28, may have been copied without verification by Jenyns and by Günther. If this is not so Agassiz's description must refer to one species, the one examined by Günther and Jenyns, and his figure to another, the one examined by us. In that case our species must receive a new name. But we regard this as highly improbable, and refer all these accounts to the synonymy of *Sciæna adusta*.

59. SCIÆNA TYPICA.

Ophioscion typicus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 165 (west coast Central America).

Corvina ophioscion Günther, Fish. Central America, 387 and 428, 1866 (Panama).
Sciæna ophioscion Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 315 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This species is not uncommon about Panama. In its slender head and lanceolate caudal fin it would seem to differ widely from most of the related forms. Its relations with *S. sciera* are, however, close, and *S. imiceps* is evidently intermediate.

The undesirability of such words as “*typicus*” as specific names is very evident in this case. If we follow the law of priority we have a name which is self-contradictory, as this is one of the species most unlike the real type of *Sciæna*.

60. SCIÆNA IMICEPS.

Sciæna imiceps Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com.; 1881, 309 (Bay of Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This small species is not rare at Panama. It resembles the species of *Stelliferus*, and it has real affinities with the latter group. The head is, however, different, being low and narrow, and little cavernous, while the gill-rakers are very short, as in the other species referred to *Ophioscion*.

61. SCIÆNA SCIERA.

(CORBINETA.)

Sciæna vermicularis Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1881, 315 (Mazatlan; Panama) (not *Corvina vermicularis* Günther). Gilbert, l. c., 1882, 112 (Punta Arenas).

Sciæna sciera Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 480 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America.

This species is one of the most abundant of the Sciænid fishes on the Pacific coast of Mexico. It was at first taken by Jordan and Gilbert for the *Corvina vermicularis* of Günther, but the latter species is well distinguished by the enlarged teeth * of the lower jaw and by the sharp upper lobe of the caudal.

62. SCIÆNA VERMICULARIS.

Corvina vermicularis Günther, Fish. Central America, 387 and 427, plate 67, fig. 2, 1869 (Panama).

Sciæna vermicularis Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 381 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Panama.

This species is rare about Panama. One specimen was obtained by Dr. Gilbert in 1883. Besides this, only Dr. Günther's original type is on record.

* This character is not mentioned in the description of *S. vermicularis*. We give it on the strength of our remembrance of the species, as no specimens of the species now exist in any American museum.

63. SCIÆNA OCCELLATA.

(THE RED DRUM, OR CHANNEL BASS; "RED-FISH.")

[Plate IV.]

Perca ocellata Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 483, 1766 (South Carolina). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 202 (examination of Linnæan types).

Centropomus ocellatus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 257, 279, 1802.

Corvina ocellata Cuvier & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., 134, plate 108, 1830 (New Orleans).

DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 75, plate 21, fig. 61, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 319, 1846 (copied). Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, ed. 1, 149, plate 21, fig. 2, 1853 (South Carolina).

Johnius ocellatus Girard, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey, 14, plate viii, fig. 1-4, 1859 (Indianola, Tex.).

Sciæna ocellata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 289, 1860 (America). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 280 (Pensacola, Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 571, 1883. Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 233 (Cedar Key, Florida). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 371, plate 125, 1884.

Sciaenops ocellatus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 30 (name only). Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 100, 1876 (southern part Chesapeake Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 378 (Beaufort). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 113 (St. John's River, Florida). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 132 (Pensacola). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (St. John's River, Florida; Beaufort, N. C.; Fort Macon, N. C.).

Lutjanus triangulum Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 181 and 217, plate 24, fig. 3, 1802.

Sciæna imberbis Mitchell, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc., New York, 411, 1815 (New York).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, New York to Texas.

This species is common along our coast, especially to the southward, where it one of the largest and most important of the food-fishes. On the Texas coast, where it is known as "Red-fish," or "Pescado Colorado," it exceeds in economic value all other fishes found there.

64. SCIÆNA HETEROLEPIS.

Johnius heterolepis Bleeker, Archives Néerlandaises, viii, 1873, with plate (Surinam).

Habitat.—Surinam.

We know this species solely from Dr. Bleeker's account of it. It much resembles the species of *Ophioscion*, but from these it is apparently separated by the entire preopercle, which, in the figure, is represented much as in *Sciæna* and *Johnius*.

65. SCIÆNA AQUILA.

(THE MAIGRE.)

? *Labrus hololepidotus* Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 517, plate 21, fig. 2, 1802 (Cape of Good Hope).

Cheilodipterus aquila Lacépède, loc. cit., v, 685, 1803.

Sciæna aquila Cuv. & Val., v, 28, pl. 100. Günther, ii, 291, and of writers generally.

Perca vanloo Risso, Ichthyol. Nice, ed. i, 298, plate 9, fig. 30, 1810.

Sciæna umbra Cuvier, Mém. Mus., i, 1 (not of Linnæus).

? *Sciæna capensis* Smith, "Ill. S. Afr. Fishes, plate 15."

Habitat.—Coasts of Southern Europe (said to range southward to the Cape of Good Hope).

Our description of this species is taken from specimens in the museum at Cambridge from Cadiz, Spain.

If the accepted synonymy be correct, and the species found at the Cape of Good Hope be identical with the Maigre of Europe, the species should stand as *Sciæna hololepidota*. But this identity seems rather assumed than proved. The Australian "Jew-fish," until lately also identified with *Sciæna aquila*, is now recognized as a distinct species (*Sciæna neglecta* Ramsay). It is, therefore, not improbable that the form found at the Cape is also different.

This species reaches a large size. It is in many respects analogous to *Sciæna ocellata*, which species is perhaps its nearest relative among the American forms.

66. SCIÆNA DELICIOSA.

Corvina deliciosa Tschudi, Faun. Peru. Ichthyol., 8, 1845 (Peru).

Sciæna deliciosa Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 295, 1860 (copied).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of South America, north to Panama.

This species is said to be one of the most abundant food-fishes on the coast of Peru. A great number of specimens are in the museum at Cambridge. Most of them are from Callao, but a few from Panama.

This is a strongly marked species, having no very near relatives anywhere, and, if the other subgenera are to be noticed, this must form an additional one, for which we have suggested the name of *Callaus* (from Callao). It resembles *Genyonemus lineatus* as much as any of our species, but it reaches a much larger size and it has no barbels.

67. SCIÆNA UMBRA.

Sciæna No. 2 Artedi, Genera, 39; Syn., 65, 1734 (Venice; Rome).

Sciæna umbra Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 289, 1758 (based on Artedi).

Sciæna nigra Bloch, Iethyologia, vi, 35, taf. 297, 1792.

Johnius niger Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 76, 1801.

Corvina nigra Cuv. & Val., and of most recent authors.

Coracinus chalcis Pallas, Zoographia Rosso-Asiatica, iii, 256, 1811.

Corvina canariensis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 93, 1830 (Canaries).

Habitat.—Coasts of Southern Europe.

This species is generally common in the Mediterranean. The specimens examined by us are from Venice.

As there can be no possible doubt that this is the original *Sciæna umbra* of Linnaeus, we have adopted the name *umbra* instead of the more frequently used name *nigra*.

68. SCIÆNA SATURNA.

(RED RONCADOR, BLACK RONCADOR.)

Amblodon saturnus Girard, U. S. Pac. R. R. Survey, 98, 1859 (San Diego, California).

Corvina saturna Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 288, 1860 (San Diego). Jordan &

Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 49 (Santa Barbara southward). Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Rhinoscion saturnus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1862, 17 (California).

Sciæna saturna Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 572, 1883.

Johnius saturnus Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 93, 1885 (name only).

Corvina (Johnius) jacobi Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 3, 1879 (San Diego), based on young specimens.

Sciæna jacobi Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 571, 1883 (copied). Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California, north to Santa Barbara.

This species is common on the coast of Southern California, where it is a food-fish of some importance, and is usually known as the Red Roncador or Black Roncador. It reaches a length of something more than a foot.

The nominal species, called *Corvina jacobi*, described from young specimens taken at San Diego, is doubtless identical with *Corvina saturna*. The only difference indicated by Steindachner which could have any serious importance is in the coloration. In the species of *Haemulon*, *Anisotremus*, and other analogous groups the young often have exactly the coloration assigned to *C. jacobi*, while the adult may be very differently marked. We have not seen the very young of *saturna*, but have no doubt that it passes through the "jacobi" coloration in the course of its development.

69. SCIÆNA FASCIATA.

Cheilotrema fasciatum Tschudi, Faun. Peru. Ichthyol., 13, plate i, 1845 (Peru).

Corvina fasciata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., i, 305, 1860 (copied).

Corvina fasciata Steindachner, Ichthyol. Not., vii, 21, 1868 (Chili).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of South America.

Our account of this species is taken from a large specimen (10839, M. C. Z.) from Payta, Peru.

The species is closely related to *Sciæna saturna*, but it is a more robust fish with heavier head. The genus *Rhinoscion*, based on *S. saturna*, is perfectly identical with *Cheilotrema*. The name *fasciata* is not a fortunate one, as the dark bands are not conspicuous and not permanent.

Genus XIII.—RONCADOR.

Roncador Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 28 (*stearnsi*).

TYPE: *Corvina stearnsi* Steindachner.

This genus contains, so far as known, a single species, a large Sciænid of the California coast, much resembling *Aplodinotus grunniens* and having similar teeth, except that the lower pharyngeals in *Roncador* are separate. The Spanish name, *Roncador* (grunter), is one of general application to these fishes, but on the California coast it is used most particularly for the present one.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF RONCADOR.

- a. Body oblong, heavy forward; the back elevated and compressed; depth 3 in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$; profile long, steep, and convex, abruptly rounded at the snout; snout very blunt, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, about equal to the interorbital space; eye 5

in head; mouth moderate, low, subinferior, the lower jaw included; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching at least to below middle of eye; preorbital nearly as broad as eye; teeth in both jaws in broad villiform bands, none of them enlarged; lower pharyngeals large, with many rounded molars, the outer series and a patch at the outer corner, composed of villiform teeth; gill-rakers slender, rather short, 7+15; posterior margin of preopercle with short, stout teeth; dorsal spines strong, the longest 2 in head; caudal lunate, the upper lobe the longer; second anal spine stout, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals much longer than ventrals, about as long as head; scales below lateral line in slightly oblique series. Color grayish silvery, with bluish luster, some streaks of dark points along the rows of scales; breast and belly with two dusky longitudinal streaks; a very conspicuous jet black spot as large as eye at base of pectoral; axil and lining of gill cavity black. D. X-I, 24; A. II, 8; scales 6-60-9..... STEARNSI, 70.

70. RONCADOR STEARNSI.

(THE RONCADOR.)

[Plate V.]

Corvina stearnsi Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 22, 1875 (San Diego).

Roncador stearnsi Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 28 (San Diego) (gen. nov.). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 49 (Santa Barbara, southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 572, 1883. Rosa Smith, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1883, 234 (Todos Santos Bay, Lower California). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 379, plate 129, 1884 (Santa Barbara, Cal.). Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 93, 1885 (name only).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California, north to Santa Barbara.

This species is rather common on the coast of Southern California, where it is a food-fish of some importance. It reaches a weight of 5 or 6 pounds.

The black ocellus on the base of the pectoral fin in this species is as characteristic as that at the base of the caudal in *Sciaena ocellata*.

Genus XIV.—LEIOSTOMUS.

Leiostomus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 439, 1802 (*xanthurus*).

Liostomus Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci., 1863, 63 (corrected orthography).

TYPE: *Leiostomus xanthurus* Lacépède.

This genus, as now understood, contains but a single species. It is distinguished from *Sciaena* chiefly by the obsolescence of the teeth in the lower jaw, and by the more paved teeth of the pharyngeals. The soft rays of the dorsal fin and especially of the anal are more numerous than in related groups.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LEIOSTOMUS.

- a. Body short, deep, much compressed; back in front of dorsal compressed to a sharp edge; profile steep, convex, depressed over the eyes; dorsal outline convex, highest at front of dorsal; depth 3 in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$; snout very blunt, as

long as eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth small, inferior, horizontal; maxillary 3 in head, extending to below pupil; no teeth in lower jaw, in the adult; upper jaw with a narrow series of minute teeth; gill-rakers short, slender, 8 + 22; lower pharyngeals small, with three series of molars posteriorly and many villiform teeth anteriorly; preopercle entire; preorbital broad, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in eye; third dorsal spine highest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal with the sheath at its base, formed by a single series of scales; caudal long and forked, as long as head; anal long and slightly falcate; second anal spine, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in the longest ray, 4 in head; ventrals $\frac{1}{2}$ shorter than pectorals which are as long as the head; scales small, strongly ctenoid, extending on caudal and base of pectorals but not on other fins; lateral line little curved anteriorly; scales below lateral line in oblique series. Color bluish above, silvery below; about 15 narrow dark wavy bands extending from the dorsal downward and forward to below lateral line; a round black humeral spot rather smaller than eye; fins plain olivaceous, the caudal not yellow. D. X-I, 31; A. II, 12; scales 9-60 to 70-12 *XANTHURUS*, 71.

71. LEIOSTOMUS XANTHURUS.

(THE SPOT; GOODY; POST-CROAKER; OLDFWIFE; LAFAYETTE.)

[Plate VI.]

Leiostomus xanthurus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 439, plate 10, fig. 1, 1802 (Carolina). Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 142, 1830 (Martinique). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 70, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 321, 1846 (copied). Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 63 (N. Y. to S. C.). Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 99, 1876 (Lower Potomac, Chesapeake Bay, Sinepuxent Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 377 (Beaufort). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 281 (Pensacola, Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 574, 1883. Bean, Internat. Fishery Exhib. Berlin, 55, 1883 (Brazos Santiago, Tex.; Pensacola, Fla.). Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 233 (Cedar Key, Florida). Jordan & Meek, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 237 (St. John's River, Florida). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 370, plate 124, 1884 (Newport, R. I., and southward). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Homopriion xanthurus Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, ed. 1, 170, 1856 (South Carolina). Girard, U. S. and Mex. Bound. Survey, 11, 1859 (Brazos Santiago, St. Joseph's, Texas).

Sciaena xanthurus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 288, 1860 (New York).

Mugil obliquus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., New York, 405, 1815 (New York).

Leiostomus obliquus DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 69, plate 60, fig. 195, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 321, 1846 (copied). Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, ed. 1, 164, plate 24, fig. 2, 1856 (South Carolina). Girard, U. S. and Mex. Bound. Survey, 11, 1859 (Brazos Santiago, Tex.; Indianola). Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 32 (north to Mass.). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 377 (Beaufort). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (St. John's River, Florida; Wood's Holl).

Sciaena obliqua Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 288, 1860 (North America).

Sciaena multifasciata Lesueur, Journ. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., ii, 225, 1821.

Leiostomus humeralis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 141, plate 110, 1830 (New York).

Leiostomus philadelphicus Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 113 (St. John's R.). Goode & Bean, l. c., 1879, 131 (Pensacola) (not *Perca philadelphica* L.).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of United States; Cape Cod to Texas; Martinique (?).

This species is one of the most common food-fishes of our southern coast, being an excellent pan-fish. Notwithstanding the numerous nominal species which authors have recognized, there is no evidence whatever of the existence of more than one species of *Leiostomus* on our coasts.

The name *xanthurus* is an unfortunate one, as in this species the caudal fin is never yellow. This name came about through confusion with *Bairdiella chrysura*, in which species the caudal fin is bright yellow.

Genus XV.—PACHYURUS.

Pachyurus Agassiz, Spix Pisces Brasiliens., 1829, 123 (*squamipennis*).

Lepipterus Cuvier & Valenciennes, Histoire Naturelle des Poissons, v, 151, 1830
(*francisci*).

TYPE: *Pachyurus squamipennis* Agassiz.

This genus is composed of fresh-water Sciænoids inhabiting the rivers of Brazil. It is well separated from *Sciæna* (*Ophioscion*) by the weak dentition. Two groups or subgenera are readily distinguished by the form of the mouth, the group called *Lepipterus* agreeing in this respect very closely with the species called *Pachypops*, from which *Lepipterus* can only be separated by the absence of the small barbels at the chin, which are usually present in the species of *Pachypops*. As these barbels are quite small, and in individuals even occasionally absent, Dr. Steindachner has proposed to unite *Pachypops* with *Lepipterus* as a subgenus under *Pachyurus*. There is no doubt that *Pachypops*, *Lepipterus*, and *Pachyurus* together constitute a single natural group. The characters drawn from the form of the mouth and of the preorbital are subject to intergradation. Unless the presence of the barbel can here, as elsewhere, be used as a mark of generic distinction, all the species must be placed in *Pachyurus*. It seems to us, however, that convenience is but served by placing all the species in which barbels are habitually developed in one genus (*Pachypops*), and those which never have them in another (*Pachyurus*).

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PACHYURUS.

- a. Mouth terminal, oblique, small, but larger than in other species; the maxillary reaching front of pupil, its length about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; jaws subequal; caudal fin densely covered with scales, so that it is thick to the touch; preorbital scarcely turgid (*Pachyurus*).
- b. Body compressed; the back elevated, the nape especially compressed; head low and narrow; profile depressed above the eyes, so that the sharp, projecting snout leaves a considerable concavity in the line of the profile; teeth in broad bands, all equally minute in both jaws; preorbital broad, broader than eye; skull not specially cavernous; pores and slits on snout obsolete; preopercle sharply but rather finely serrate on the bony border; eye large, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$; interorbital width $5\frac{1}{2}$; gill-rakers almost obsolete, $2 + 4$ in number, not higher than wide; pseudobranchia small; caudal fin rhombic, much thickened; soft dorsal scaly, but not thickened; longest

- dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal scaleless, its second spine very strong, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color silvery, with narrow dark streaks above the lateral line; both dorsals profusely covered with fine dark spots; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 35; A. II, 7; scales 67 to 68; those in the lateral line scarcely larger SQUAMIPINNIS, 72.
- aa.* Mouth small, inferior, the maxillary barely reaching front of eye, about $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lower jaw included; caudal fin less thickened; preorbital more or less cavernous and turgid (*Lepipterus* Cuv. & Val.).
- c.* [Dorsal rays X-I, 33; body elongate; head long and depressed over the eyes; depth 6 in length; head 4; maxillary concealed under preorbital; teeth in fine bands; mouth small, maxillary not reaching to front of eye; preopercle serrate; dorsal spines feeble, flexible, and little elevated; dorsal rays sub-equal; caudal rounded; dorsal and caudal completely scaled; second anal spine curved and compressed, larger and stronger than in related species; color entirely silvery, with numerous darker lines along the back; brown spots on second dorsal. D. X-I, 33; A. II, 7.] (Cuv. & Val.)--FRANCISCI, 73.
- cc.* Dorsal rays X-I, 26 to 29.
- d.* Second anal spine very long, 2 in head; anterior profile more or less concave, rather steep posteriorly; profile of snout convex; snout 3 in head; mouth small, with very small teeth overlapped by the turgid and translucent preorbital; eye large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$; caudal fin rhombic, densely scaled, but less thickened than in *P. squamipinnis*; soft dorsal much scaly; anal naked; dorsal spines slender, the longest 2 in head, about as long as second anal spine; preopercle strongly serrate; gill-rakers very small; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color brownish, silvery below; traces of 2 or 3 faint dark streaks on posterior part of body above; spinous dorsal mostly black; soft dorsal with some dark spots; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 26 to 29; A. II, 6 to 8; scales 65 (pores) to 70 (series).--BONARIENSIS, 74.
- dd.* [Second anal spine shorter, 3 in head; body slightly compressed and somewhat elongate; head conical, elongate; snout produced and somewhat pointed, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye 4 in head; preorbital much swollen, concealing the maxillary; mouth inferior, small; maxillary not reaching to below eye; preopercle with moderate spinous teeth; longest dorsal spines $\frac{2}{3}$ of depth of body; all the spines slender; soft dorsal scaly $\frac{1}{2}$ of its height; caudal pointed; second anal spine 3 in head; anal rays naked, shorter than dorsal rays; scales small, finely ciliated; teeth minute, scarcely perceptible in upper jaw, in a fine villiform band below; body and second dorsal with blackish spots; head 4 in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 26; A. II, 7; scales 9-85-20.] (Günther.) SCHOMBURGKI, 75.

72. PACHYURUS SQUAMIPINNIS.

Pachyurus squamipinnis (misprinted "squamipennis") Agassiz, Spix. Pisc. Bras., 123, plate 71, 1829 (Brazil). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 231, 1860 (Atlantic Ocean). Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 13, 1879 (Rio São Francisco; Rio das Velhas).

Pachyurus lundii (Reinhardt, MS.). Lütken, Velhas-Flodens Fiske, xx, 1875 (Rio das Velhas).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

The numerous specimens of this species which we have examined are from the Rio das Velhas, in Brazil. The largest of these (8634, M. C. Z.) is about 15 inches long.

73. PACHYURUS FRANCISCI.

Lepipterus francisci Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat., v, 152, plate 113, 1830 (Rio São Francisco).

Pachyurus francisci Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 281, 1860 (copied).

Pachyurus corrina (Reinhardt MS.), Lütken, Velhas-Flodens Fiske, xx, 1875 (Rio das Velhas).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

We know this species from descriptions only.

74. PACHYURUS BONARIENSIS.

Pachyurus bonariensis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 8, 1879 (Rio de la Plata).

Habitat.—Basin of the Rio de la Plata.

We have examined three specimens of this species in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. Two of them, each about a foot in length, are from Buenos Ayres, the other from Rosario.

75. PACHYURUS SCHOMBURGKI.

Pachyurus schomburgki Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 282, 1860 (Rio Capin; Ca-ribe; Pará). Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beiträge, viii, 11, 1879 (Pará; Cameta; Obidos; Lake Saraca; Rio Negro; Rio Branco).

Pachyurus nattereri Steindachner, Beitr. zur Kenntn. der Sciæn. Brasil., 10, plate iii, 1863 (Rio Branco; Rio Negro).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

This species is known to us from descriptions only. We have failed to recognize it in the collections at Cambridge. We follow Steindachner in regarding his *Pachyurus nattereri* as a synonym of *schomburgki*.

Genus XVI.—PACHYPOPS.

Pachyops Gill, Proc. Ac. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 87 (*trifilis*).

TYPE: *Micropogon trifilis* Müller & Troschel.

This genus, like *Pachyurus*, is composed entirely of fresh-water species, inhabiting the Amazon region. It differs from *Pachyurus* only in the presence of small barbels at the chin, and in some individuals these appendages may be rudimentary or even wanting. For this reason Dr. Steindachner has proposed to regard this character as of no systematic importance, and to place these species in the subgenus *Lepipterus* under *Pachyurus*. But unless it can be shown that the *Pachyuri* sometimes possess barbels, it seems to us better to retain the two groups as distinct genera.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PACHYPOPS.

- a. Dorsal rays X-I, 25 to 27; body without conspicuous dark brown spots; caudal rhombic; teeth all equally small.
- b. Maxillary scarcely reaching front of eye, its length 4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; barbels 3, minute (sometimes obsolete); snout prominent, blunt, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye very large, 3 in head; mouth very small, overlapped by the turgid preorbital; teeth small, equal; gill-rakers very small; soft dorsal and anal completely scaled; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal rhombic, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head;

longest dorsal spine $1\frac{1}{2}$. Color uniform dusky, paler below; dorsals punctate with black. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 4. D. X-I, 25 to 27; A. II, 6. Scales 58.

FURCRÆUS, 76.

- bb.** [Maxillary reaching line of front of eye, its length $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; barbels 3, well developed; body oblong, compressed; eye not very large, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$ in head; snout prominent, rounded, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preorbital broad; teeth equal; preopercle rather finely serrate; soft dorsal closely scaled; anal scaly at base only; pectoral, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal rhombic, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine, $2\frac{1}{6}$; third dorsal spine, $1\frac{1}{4}$. Color silvery, with 5 dusky longitudinal bands; dorsals edged with black, the membranes of the spinous part with longitudinal series of dark dots. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 26; A. II, 6. Scales 50 to 55.]
(Steindachner). TRIFILIS, 77.
- aa.** Dorsal rays X-I, 31 or 32; back and dorsal fins sprinkled with round dark spots; caudal fin not rhombic; outer teeth above slightly enlarged. Body rather elongate, the back elevated; head rather slender, depressed above the eye; snout rather long, bluntnish at tip, 3 in head; eye large, 5 in head; mouth small, low, inferior, scarcely overtipped by the snout, the maxillary reaching front of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in broad bands, the outer teeth of upper jaw somewhat enlarged; barbels at chin 3, minute, not longer than nostril; preopercle sharply serrate. Gill-rakers slender, very short; preopercle and especially preorbital much swollen, cavernous, and translucent; mandible not cavernous; dorsal spines strong, the longest 2 in head, as long as the large anal spine; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal fin f-shaped, the upper lobe pointed. Color brown, with round dark-brown spots scattered over the back and sides, these forming streaks along the rows of scales, which are more or less irregular or interrupted, the spots not being confluent; both dorsals with rows of similar spots; ventrals dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 31 or 32; A. II, 6 to 8. Scales 75 (8-67-13). ADSPERSUS, 78.

76. PACHYPOPS FURCRÆUS.

Perca furcata Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 398, 424, 1802 (? Surinam).

Corvina furcata Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 111, 1830 (same type).

Pachypops furcatus Steindachner, Beitr. zur Kenntniß Sciænoiden Brasiliens, 7, plate 1, 1863 (Rio Negro).

Pachyurus furcatus Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 12, 1879 (Surinam; Rio Trombetas; Rio Negro; Amazon, near Cameta).

Corvina biloba Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 112, 1830 (habitat not known).

Pachypops biloba Steindachner, Ichth. Notiz., 206, 1864 (Surinam).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil and Guiana.

Specimens of this species are in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Trombetas, Rio Negro, Obidos, and Cameta. The specimen here described was obtained in Rio Negro by Rev. J. C. Fletcher.

This species was named in honor of a French chemist, Fourcroy.

77. PACHYPOPS TRIFILIS.

Micropogon trifilis Müller and Troschel, Schomburgk Reise, iii, 622, 1848 (Guiana). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 273, 1860 (copied).

Pachypops trifilis Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 87 (copied). Steindachner, Beitr. zur Kenntniß Sciænoiden Brasiliens, 7, plate ii, figs. 1-3, 1863 (Rio Guaporé; Rio Negro).

Pachyurus trifilis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 12, 1879 (synonymy).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil and Surinam.

This species is known to us from Dr. Steindachner's descriptions and figure only.

78. PACHYPOPS ADSPESSUS.

? *Corvina grunniens* Schomburgk, Nat. Libr. Fish. Guiana, 1843, 136 (Rio Essequibo).
Pachyurus (*Lepipterus*) *adspersus* Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., viii, 5, 1879 (Rio Parahyba, Rio Doce, Rio San Antonio, Mucuri).

Habitat.—Rivers of Brazil.

We have examined numerous specimens of this species in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Doce, Santa Clara, Rio San Antonio, and Menchez. The specimen described, 15 inches in length, is from the Rio Doce.

The scanty description of *Corvina grunniens* indicates some river Sciaenoid, with distinctly spotted dorsal and anal fins, and with the fin rays D. IX, 32; A. II, 7. The account comes nearest among known species to *Pachypops adspersus*, and if this species occurs in the Essequibo it should probably stand as *Pachypops grunniens*. But without a better knowledge of the local fauna of Guiana, such an identification would be premature.

Genus XVII.—POLYCIRRUS.

Polycirrus Bocourt, Nouv. Arch. Mus. d'Hist. Nat., iv, 22, 1868 (*dumerili*).

TYPE: *Polyeirrhys dumerili* Bocourt.

This genus is composed of three species of Sciaenoid fishes, distinguished from *Micropogon* chiefly by the absence of serræ on the preopercle, and from *Genyonemus* by having the normal number of dorsal spines. All the known species are marked by well-defined dark cross-bands, and all belong to the fauna of South America.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF POLYCIRRUS.

- a. Dorsal rays about IX-I, 22; caudal fin double truncate; body rather elongate, the back somewhat elevated, the head low and small; profile steep; ventral outline straightish; snout not very short, somewhat acute, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; interorbital area broad, convex, 3 in head; eye $5\frac{1}{2}$; mouth small, entirely inferior, maxillary extending past middle of eye, $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head; teeth small, villiform, the outer scarcely larger; preopercle rounded, its edge with soft cilia; third dorsal spine 3 in head; soft dorsal with a scaly sheath, its membranes with small scales; ventrals filiform at tip, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal inserted well forward, its second spine $2\frac{3}{4}$ in head; caudal double truncate; lateral line much arched anteriorly. Color, bluish-gray, silvery below; 6 rather broad distinct cross-bars extending down to edge of belly; two inconspicuous dark cross-bars on head; lower fins pale. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{5}{8}$ in length; depth $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. IX-I, 22 to 25; A. II, 7 or 8; scales 6-47 to 52-9 DUMERILI, 79.
- aa. Dorsal rays X-I, 26 to 32.
- b. Caudal fin obliquely truncate, or somewhat pointed. Dorsal rays X-I, 29 to 31; snout short, $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body more elongate than in *P. dumerili*, the snout lower, shorter, and more pointed; maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{4}$ in head; gill-rakers minute; fins scaly; soft dorsal rays 3 in head; eye $4\frac{1}{2}$ to 6; longest dorsal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; caudal $1\frac{1}{10}$ in head; second anal spine very small, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$; preopercle ciliated on its membranous border. Coloration less marked than in *P. dumerili*, the darker cross-bands narrower, more numerous (about 8), and less sharply defined; the anterior band sometimes reduced to a large round black blotch above base of pectoral; pectoral mostly dusky. Head 4; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 29 to 31; A. II, 8; scales about 7-58-11.. BRASILIENSIS, 60.

bb. Caudal fin slightly lunate or S-shaped; body compressed, rather robust; head low, little compressed, the snout extremely short and blunt, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers small and slender; barbels well developed, about as in the other species; eye $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth larger and more oblique than in the other species; the maxillary $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; longest dorsal spine 2; second anal spine $3\frac{1}{2}$. Color soiled, hardly silvery; about eight short, rather faint, dark cross-bands, as wide as the interspaces; fins all dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 26; A. II, 9; scales 55.....**PERUANUS**, 81.

79. POLYCIRRUS DUMERILI.

Polyoirrhus dumerili Bocourt, Nouv. Arch. Mus. d'Hist. Natur., iv, 22, 1868 (La Union).
Jordan, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1883, 288 (La Union) (note on Bocourt's type).

Genyonemus fasciatus Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., ii, 31, 1875 (Panama). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 111 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Central America; Panama.

This small species is rather abundant about Panama. An examination of Bocourt's type of *Polycirrus dumerili* has shown its identity with the *Genyonemus fasciatus* of Steindachner. The specimens in the museum at Cambridge are from Panama.

80. POLYCIRRUS BRASILIENSIS.

Genyonemus brasiliensis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., ii, 34, 1875 (Pará, Santos).
Micropogon ornatus Günther, Shore Fishes Challenger, 13, plate vii, fig. A, 1890 (mouth of Rio de la Plata).

Habitat.—Coast of Brazil.

The specimens of this species in the Museum of Comparative Zoology are from Rio Janeiro and Santos. The identity of *ornatus* with *brasiliensis* has been claimed by Dr. Steindachner. Günther's description does not agree very well with the specimens examined by us, which are a part of the number of Dr. Steindachner's original types. It is not likely, however, that they belong to a different species.

81. POLYCIRRUS PERUANUS.

Genyonemus peruanus Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beiträge, ii, 27, 1879 (Callao; Payta).

Habitat.—Coast of Peru.

The specimens of this species in the museum at Cambridge are from Callao and Payta. They are among the original types of Dr. Steindachner.

Genus XVIII.—GENYONEMUS.

Genyonemus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 87 (*lineatus*).

TYPE: *Leiostomus lineatus* Ayres.

This genus contains but a single species, abundant along the coast of California.

Although in a general way allied to *Polycirrus* and *Micropogon*, it has some points of resemblance to *Corvula* and *Bairdiella*, and especially to *Sciaena deliciosa*.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF GENYONEMUS.

- a. Body oblong, somewhat compressed, the back little elevated; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$; profile little convex, rather abruptly decurved at the snout; snout $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth subinferior, somewhat oblique; maxillary 3 in head, reaching posterior margin of pupil, lower jaw included; teeth in villiform bands, the outer series above slightly enlarged; chin with five small pores and two series of minute barbels; preorbital two-thirds width of eye, which is $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preopercle with a crenulate membranous border; opercle with radiating striae; gill-rakers short and slender, 7+19; third dorsal spine highest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; first soft rays of dorsal highest, decreasing in height to the last; caudal lunate; first ventral ray produced as a filament, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectoral slightly longer than ventrals; scales large, strongly ctenoid, those below lateral line in horizontal series; color silvery with brassy luster and black punctulations, these forming faint, oblique dark lines along the rows of scales; fins yellowish; axil black. D. XIII-I, 21 or 22; A. II, 11; scales 7-54-10 **LINEATUS, 82.**

82. GENYONEMUS LINEATUS.

Leiostomus lineatus Ayres, Proc. Cal. Acad. Nat. Sci., 1855, 25 (San Francisco). *Girard*, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1856, 135 (San Francisco). U. S. Pac. R. R. Survey, 99, plate 22 B, fig. 1-4, 1859 (San Francisco).

Sciaena lineata Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 288, 1860 (copied).

Genyonemus lineatus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 89 (name only). Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 17 (name only). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (San Francisco, Monterey Bay, San Luis Obispo, Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 49 (San Francisco, southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 574, 1883. Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California, north to San Francisco.

This little fish is generally common along the coast of Southern California, where it is a food-fish of some importance and is usually known as the "Little Roncador."

Genus XIX.—MICROPOGON.

Micropogon Cuvier & Valenciennes, Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 213, 1830 (*lineatus*=*furnieri*.)

TYPE: *Micropogon lineatus* Cuv. & Val.=*Umbrina furnieri* Desmarest.

The species of this well-marked genus are very closely related and are all American.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF MICROPOGON.

- a. Dorsal rays X-I, 28 to 30.
 b. Scales comparatively small, about 9 in a vertical series between front of dorsal and lateral line, 12 in an oblique series; outer teeth of upper jaw evidently enlarged; dark spots on scales above lateral line not forming continuous stripes; 16 scales in an oblique series from vent upward and forward to lateral line. Body rather robust, the back elevated; profile regularly rounded, scarcely depressed above eyes; snout 3 in head; eye 5 in head; preorbital broader than eye; preopercle strongly serrate along its whole posterior margin; maxillary reaching front of pupil, 3 in head; gill-rakers slender, very short, numerous, about 7 + 16; third dorsal spine 2 in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in

head; caudal double truncate, $1\frac{3}{8}$ in head; second anal spine 3 in head. Color brassy, paler below; middle part of body with short, irregular dusky vertical bars crossing the lateral line; many dark-brown spots on sides of back, irregularly placed, and not forming continuous streaks along the rows of scales; usually some of these coalesce to form two dark streaks concurrent with the back. Head 3 in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 28 or 29; A. II, 7; lat. 1. 54 UNDULATUS, 83.

bb. Scales larger, 7 in a vertical series from front of dorsal to lateral line, 9 or 10 in an oblique series; teeth of outer series in upper jaw scarcely enlarged; dark spots on back forming continuous dark streaks nearly as wide as the pale interspaces; body a little more slender than in *M. undulatus*; profile almost straight, a little depressed above the eye; snout long, 3 in head; eye small, 6 in head, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in interorbital area; preorbital wider than eye; maxillary 3 in head, reaching front of pupil; teeth in broad, villiform bands; preopercle less strongly serrate than in *M. undulatus*; third dorsal spine highest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; dorsals connected by a low membrane; dorsal with a sheath at its base formed by a single series of scales; soft dorsal naked; second anal spine 5 in head; scales of the breast and head cycloid; a dark spot on opercle; axil dusky; short vertical bars extending across lateral line; many oblique lines above these; markings more regular, though less sharply defined than in *M. undulatus*. Head $3\frac{3}{8}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{8}$. D. X-I, 30; A. II, 7; lateral line 54 FURNIERI, 84.

aa. Dorsal rays X-I, 24 to 26; outer teeth of upper jaw scarcely enlarged; scales rather large; snout little projecting; lateral line 48 (oblique series, 53 pores); scales between front of dorsal and lateral line, vertically 6 or 7; obliquely 8; 16 in an oblique series from vent; profile gibbous above the eyes, depressed at the nape; eye $1\frac{1}{4}$ in snout, 6 in head; mouth broad, inferior, slightly oblique; maxillary entirely concealed by the broad preorbital, which is wider than the eye; maxillary extending to below anterior margin of the orbit; teeth in both jaws in villiform bands, those of the outer series of the upper jaw somewhat enlarged; preopercle with two strong spines at the angle and many smaller ones above these; gill-rakers little developed, not half the length of the pupil, 7 + 12; third dorsal spine highest, reaching to first soft ray, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft rays of dorsal subequal; caudal double truncate; anal spine moderate, $1\frac{3}{8}$ in the rays, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals $\frac{1}{2}$ longer than ventrals, slightly less than $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales on cheek, opercle, and breast cycloid, the rest ctenoid; soft dorsal with a weak scaly sheath anteriorly; soft dorsal and anal naked; lateral line arched anteriorly, becoming straight slightly in front of anal fin. Color, grayish silvery; dorsal region and sides above lower edge of pectorals marked with dark streaks extending obliquely upward and backward along the series of scales; about ten short oblique bars extending downward and forward across the arched portion of the lateral line; lining of gill cavity blackish; fins all yellowish; tip of spinous dorsal blackish; upper edge of pectoral and border of soft dorsal dusky. Head $3\frac{3}{8}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 24 to 26; A. II, 7; scales 7-53-10 ECTENES, 85.

aaa. Dorsal rays X-I, 20 to 22; outer teeth of upper jaw scarcely enlarged; snout somewhat projecting; scales still larger; lateral line 42 (49 pores); scales above the lateral line, vertically, 5 or 6; obliquely, 8; 12 in an oblique series from vent; maxillary extending scarcely beyond the vertical from the anterior margin of the eye; body less elongate than in *Micropogon ectenes*; highest dorsal spines $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anal spine about 4 in head; coloration essentially as in *Micropogon ectenes*. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{3}{8}$. D. X-I, 20 to 22; A. II, 7. Scales 7-48-15 ALTIPINNIS, 86.

83. MICROPOGON UNDULATUS.

(THE CROAKER.)

[Plate VII.]

Perca undulata Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 483, 1766 (South Carolina). Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 87, 1801.

Micropogon undulatus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 219, 1830 (New Orleans). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 325, 1846 (copied). Holbrook, Ichth. S. Carolina, 145, plate 21, fig. 2, 1856 (South Carolina). Girard, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey, 13, plate xii, 1859 (mouth Rio Grande, Indianola, Galveston, Saint Joseph's Island, Texas). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 271, 1860 (in part) (New York). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 84, 1862 (New York). Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 102, 1876 (southern part Chesapeake Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 378 (Beaufort). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 113 (Saint John's River, Florida). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 132 (Pensacola). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 94 (Saint John's River, Florida). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 282 (Pensacola; Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Beau, Internat. Fishery Exhib. Berlin, 56, 1883 (Arlington, Florida). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 575, 1883. Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 36 (Pensacola). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 378, plate 128, 1884 (Newport, R. I., and southward). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 202, Linnaean types (South Carolina).

Sciaena croker Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 309, 314, 316, 1802 (Carolina).

Bodianus costatus Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc. New York, 417, 1815 (New York).

Micropogon costatus DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 83, plate 72, fig. 230, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 325, 1846 (copied).

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, Cape Cod to Texas.

This species is generally common along our Atlantic coast, becoming very abundant southward, but not extending into the West Indies. It is a food-fish of some importance.

84. MICROPOGON FURNIERI.

(VERRUGATO.)

*Umbrina furnieri** Desmarest, Première Décade Ichthyol., 22, plate ii, fig. 3, 1823 (Cuba).

Micropogon furnieri Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 37 (Havana). Bean & Dresel, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 157 (Jamaica). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 44 (Havana).

Sciana opercularis Quoy & Gaimard, Voy. Uran., Zool., 347, 1824 (Rio Janeiro).

Micropogon lineatus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 215, plate 119 (Brazil; Porto Rico; Havana).

Micropogon argenteus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 218 (Surinam).

Micropogon undulatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 271, 1860 (in part; not *Perca undulata* L.) (Surinam; Bahia; Guatemala; Cuba; Jamaica). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387, 1869 (Atlantic coast of Central America). Poey, Synopsis, 325, 1868 (Cuba). Poey, Enumeratio, 48, 1875 (Cuba). Günther, An. & Mag. Nat. Hist., July, 1880 (Rio Plata). Poey, Fauna Puerto-Riqueña, 325, 1881 (Porto Rico).

* This species, although named for its discoverer, Marcellin Fournier, is always written *furnieri* by Desmarest.

Habitat.—West Indies and coasts of South America.

This species is generally common in the West Indies and southward along the coast of Brazil. It is very close to the northern *Micropogon undulatus*, and for this reason its real distinction from the latter has been generally overlooked until quite lately. We have examined numerous specimens from Cuba and from Rio Janeiro.

85. MICROPOGON ECTENES.

Micropogon ectenes Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 355 (Mazatlan); Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Mexico; Mazatlan.

This species was found by Professor Gilbert in moderate abundance at Mazatlan, where it seems to take the place of the closely allied *Micropogon altipinnis*.

86. MICROPOGON ALTIPINNIS.

Micropogon altipinnis Günther, Proc. Zool. Soc., 1864, 149 (San José; Panama; Chiapas). Günther, Fish. Central America, 387 and 425, 1869 (Chiapas; San José; Panama). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 111 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Central America.

This species is closely related to the others of the genus. It was found by Dr. Gilbert at Panama. Specimens from Panama are also in the museum at Cambridge.

Genus XX.—UMBRINA.

Sciæna (part) Artedi, 1738 (includes *Corvina*).

Sciæna (part) Linnæus, Systema Naturæ, ed. x, 289, 1758 (*umbra*; *cirrosa*).

Umbrina Cuvier, Règne Animal, ed. i, 297, 1817 (*cirrosa*; *Sciæna* L. being restricted to *Sciæna umbra*, a Linnæan, and *Sciæna aquila*, a non-Linnæan species).

Sciæna Bleeker,* Poissons de la Côte de Guinée, 1862, 66 (*cirrosa*; not the earliest restriction to a Linnæan type).

Umbrina Günther, Gill, Jordan & Gilbert, and of authors generally.

TYPE: *Sciæna cirrosa* Linnæus.

This genus contains a considerable number of species, most of them being American. It agrees with *Sciæna* in nearly all respects, excepting the presence at the chin of a short, thick barbel. A similar barbel is found in the genus *Menticirrhus*, but notwithstanding the fact that all European writers have confounded *Menticirrhus* with *Umbrina*, the two genera are not among the most closely related in this family.

* "Je note ici que l'espèce typique du genre *Sciæna* Art. étant l'*Umbrina cirrosa* CV., le nom de *Sciæna* devra être appliqué aux espèces dont Cuvier a fait des *Umbrina*, et ne pourra plus être employé dans le sens de Cuvier. Ni M. Günther ni M. Gill, dans leurs travaux sur les Sciænoïdes, paraissent avoir fait attention à ce que le nom générique d'Artedi est mal employé par les auteurs modernes, et M. Gill cite même le *Sciæna aquila* comme le type du genre." (Bleeker, l. c.)

In quoting *Umbrina cirrosa* as the type of Artedi's genus *Sciæna*, Bleeker means merely that it is the one placed first by Artedi in the list of species.

We find ourselves unable to follow Bleeker in using the name *Sciæna* for the group usually called *Umbrina*, for reasons which may be again briefly stated. *Sciæna* was originally (Artedi, 1738; Linnaeus, 1758) founded on the typical species of the two modern genera *Umbrina* and *Corvina*. In 1817, *Umbrina* was set off from this group and *Sciæna* was made to apply to the group later called *Corvina*, a third species (*aquila*) being added to *Sciæna*. Later (1829) *Corvina* was separated by Cuvier. This gave *Umbrina*, *Corvina*, and *Sciæna*, the latter name then standing for *aquila*. In 1862, Bleeker proposed to use *Sciæna* for the type of *Umbrina*, because in enumerating his species of *Sciæna*, Artedi had made the *Umbrina* "No. 1" and the *Corvina* "No. 2." This is, however, a matter of no significance. In our view but one arrangement of these names is allowable. *Umbrina* must stand, *Sciæna* must take the place of *Corvina*, and the third species (*aquila*) must take a new name—*Pseudosciæna* Bleeker.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF UMBRINA.

a. Dorsal rays X-I, 22 to 24.

b. Snout moderate, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; stripes on body yellowish, bordered with steel blue; preopercle with its bony margin distinctly serrate, the teeth at the angle broad and flattish. Body rather deep, the back elevated, the dorsal outline regularly rounded, highest at first dorsal spines; profile steep; snout low, bluntish, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye small, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in snout, $1\frac{1}{3}$ in interorbital area, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth moderate, inferior; maxillary reaching front of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preorbital one-third broader than eye; teeth villiform, in broad bands, the outer above little enlarged; lower pharyngeal teeth stout, conical, the inner posterior series slender. Spinous dorsal high the third spine $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal scaleless; second anal spine small, $1\frac{2}{3}$ in soft rays, $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; pectorals little shorter than ventrals, which are $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head; caudal slightly lunate, the upper lobe the longer. Color olivaceous, silvery below; upper parts with many wavy lines, yellowish in color, and each bordered on each side by a distinct streak of steel blue; the lines partly following the rows of scales, running nearly straight upward and backwards at the shoulders, more nearly horizontal, more irregular and more or less broken posteriorly; free membrane of opercle jet black within and without; gill cavity pale. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 22 to 24; A. II, 7; scales 9-51 (pores)-12; about 65 transverse series of scales. CIRROSA, 87.

bb. [Snout very short, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; stripes on body dusky. Body somewhat elongate; the ventral outline straightish, dorsal outline elevated and much convex; profile steep and convex, slightly depressed over the eyes; snout bluntish, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye 6 in head, about equal to the broad preorbital; mouth subinferior, horizontal; maxillary reaching past middle of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; barbel very short; dorsal spines rather strong, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anterior dorsal rays highest; base of membrane scaly; caudal slightly lunate; anal spine very strong, 3 in head; ventrals shorter than pectorals, which are $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales very thin, covered with minute scales on their base; scales below the lateral line in horizontal series; lateral line regularly arched to above posterior margin of anal. Coloration much as in *Micropogon undulatus*; conspicuous undulating black lines follow the series of scales on whole of body above the pectoral; pectoral, ventral, and anal blackish, with broad whitish margin. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. D. IX-I, 24; A. II, 9; scales 6-60 (about)-10.] (Günther.) REEDI, 88.

- aa.* Dorsal rays X-I, 26 to 28; serræ of preopercle slender, not notably flattened.
- cc.* Body with about nine dark vertical cross-bands, besides narrow undulating streaks along the rows of scales. Body rather stout, the back somewhat arched; eye $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preopercle finely denticulate; mouth moderate, the maxillary reaching to below middle of eye; teeth subequal, villiform, in broad bands; gill-rakers minute, slender, 5 + 9; second dorsal spine highest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; second anal spine about $2\frac{1}{2}$; pectorals short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$; lateral line little arched. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 3. D. X-I, 26 to 28; A. II, 6 or 7; scales 5-48-10. *BROUSSONETI*, 89.
- cc.* Body without dark cross-bands, the rows of scales above with distinct undulating streaks.
- dd.* Snout bluntish, short, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; serræ of preopercle comparatively numerous and strong, subterete. Body not very deep, the profile somewhat depressed over the eyes; eye $1\frac{1}{2}$ in snout, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in interorbital space, 5 in head; preorbital not quite so broad as eye; mouth inferior, the maxillary reaching to middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in broad bands, the outer series above little enlarged; gill-rakers shortish, rather stout, shorter than pupil, 6+9; pharyngeal teeth longer and more numerous than in *cirrosa*; highest dorsal spine $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal slightly lunate; second anal spine strong, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; color bluish above, silvery below; a dusky blotch on center of opercle; back and sides with distinct streaks of deep olive following the centers of the rows of scales, these lines regular and not interrupted; they run obliquely upward and backward below as well as above the lateral line, those below being more nearly horizontal; fins chiefly bright yellow; membrane of opercle pale; lining of gill cavity dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 27; A. II, 6 or 7; lat. 1. with about 50 pores; about 60 transverse rows of scales. *RONCADOR*, 90.
- dd.* Snout longer than eye, 3 to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; preopercle distinctly serrate.
- ee.* Second anal spine large, 2 in head; profile straight, moderately steep; snout rather acute; eye $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth small, inferior, the maxillary nearly reaching middle of orbit, its length $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth subequal; gill-rakers scarcely developed, 4 + 9; third dorsal spine highest, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; anterior dorsal rays much longer than posterior ones; anal fin pointed, the second soft ray longest, the second spine very strong, 2 in head; ventrals slightly longer than pectorals, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lateral line moderately arched anteriorly; color bluish, silvery below; conspicuous dark lines following the rows of scales, those below lateral line oblique as well as those above; spinous dorsal dusky. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ in length; depth $3\frac{1}{6}$. D. X-I, 26; A. II, 6; scales 5-48-8. *XANTI*, 91.
- ee.* Second anal spine short and thickish, 3 in head. Back elevated, the anterior profile steep and rather convex; snout blunt, much protruding; mouth small, horizontal; the maxillary reaching just past pupil, 3 in head; eye 5 in head; preopercle finely and sharply serrate; gill-rakers very small; pectoral short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; longest dorsal spine 2; caudal fin slightly lunate, the upper lobe the longer; scales above lateral line in very oblique series, in oblique series below lateral line anteriorly; color, grayish, yellow below; faint dark lines along the scales on the upper half of the body, golden lines on scales below; dorsals finely punctuate; fins pale; gill cavity pale within. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth $3\frac{1}{6}$ to $3\frac{1}{3}$. D. X-I, 28 or 29; A. II, 6; lat. 1. 50 to 53. *GALAPAGORUM*, 92.
- aaa.* Dorsal rays X-I, 31 to 33; preopercle with its edge weakly crenulate; snout very blunt, not longer than eye, 4 in head; back elevated; profile depressed posteriorly, anteriorly gibbous; mouth rather large, subterminal; maxillary reaching posterior border of pupil, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gili-

rakers short and slender, 5+9; second dorsal spine highest, 2 in head; soft rays high; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals slightly shorter than ventrals, which are $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head. Color bluish, silvery below, dark streaks along the rows of scales very faint, broader than the pale inter-spaces. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. D. X-I, 33; A. II, 7; scales 8-53-9.

DORSALIS, 93.

87. UMBRINA CIRROSA.

Sciæna No. 1. Artedi, Genera 38, 1734 (Mediterranean).

Sciæna cirrosa Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 289, 1758 (Mediterranean; after Artedi).

Johnius cirrhosus Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 72, 1801.

Umbrina cirrhosa of recent writers generally.

Perca umbra Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 16, 1802 (not *Sciæna umbra* Linnaeus).

Chilodipterus cyanopterus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 546, plate 6, fig. 3, 1802 (on a painting by Plumier).

Coracinus boops Pallas, Zoographia Rosso-Asiat., iii, 259, 1811.

Umbrina vulgaris Guichenot, Expl. de l'Algérie, 43, 1850 (coast of Algeria).

Sciæna cestreus Gronow, Cat. Fish., ed. Gray, 52, 1854 (Mediterranean).

Habitat.—Mediterranean Sea.

This handsome species is rather common in the waters of Southern Europe. Our specimens are from Venice and Palermo.

88. UMBRINA REEDI.

Umbrina reedi Günther, Shore Fishes, Challenger, 25, plate xiii, fig. B, 1880 (Juan Fernandez).

Habitat.—Coast of Chili.

We know this species from Günther's description only.

89. UMBRINA BROUSSONETI.

Umbrina broussoneti Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 187, 1830 (Jamaica). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 324, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 277, 1860 (San Domingo, Jamaica). Cope, Ichthyol. Lesser Antilles, 471, 1870 (St. Martin). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. N. Am., 576, 1883 (specimens described from Indian River, Florida).

Umbrina coroides Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 187, 1830 (Brazil). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 323, 1846 (copied). Poey, Enumeratio, 48, 1875 (Cuba).

Habitat.—West Indian Fauna; Florida to Brazil.

This species is known to us from two specimens taken by Dr. J. A. Henshall in the Indian River, Florida. These agree on the whole better with *Umbrina coroides* C. & V., than with *Umbrina broussoneti*; but we think that Dr. Günther is probably right in regarding the two nominal species as identical.

We have also examined specimens from Jérémie, Hayti, and from Pernambuco in the museum at Cambridge.

90. UMBRINA RONCADOR.

(THE YELLOW-FINNED RONCADOR.)

Umbrina undulata Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iii, 21, 1875 (San Diego) (not of Girard).

Umbrina xanti Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 48 (Santa Barbara southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego) (not of Gill).

Umbrina roncador Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 277 (west coast Lower California). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 576, 1883. Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California; north to Santa Barbara.

This species is rather common along the coast of Southern California from Santa Barbara as far south as Cerros Island. It is a handsome species, brightly colored in life, and of some value as food.

91. UMBRINA XANTI.

Umbrina xanti Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 256 (Cape San Lucas). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 363 (Cape San Lucas). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan) and 111 (Panama). Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 112 (Punta Arenas).

Umbrina analis Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 426, 1869 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Cape San Lucas to Panama.

This species is rather common along the west coast of Mexico, specimens having been taken by Dr. Gilbert, at Mazatlan, Punta Arenas, and Panama. These are identical with Gill's types of *U. xanti* and with Günther's *U. analis*, both of which have been examined by us.

92. UMBRINA GALAPAGORUM.

Umbrina galapagorum Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., vii, 20, 1878 (James Island, Galapagos).

Habitat.—Galapagos Archipelago.

This species is known from Dr. Steindachner's original types, most of which are still in the Museum of Comparative Zoology.

93. UMBRINA DORSALIS.

Umbrina dorsalis Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 257 (Cape San Lucas). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 363 (Cape San Lucas). Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of Mexico.

This species seems to be rather rare. A large example was taken by Dr. Gilbert at Mazatlan, and this has been compared by us with the types of *U. dorsalis*, young examples taken at Cape San Lucas by Mr. Xantus.

Genus XXI.—MENTICIRRHUS.

Menticirrhus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 86 (*alburnus*).

Cirrimens Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 17 (*ophicephalus*).

Umbrula Jordan & Eigenmann, subgenus nov. (*littoralis*).

TYPE : *Perca alburnus* Linnæus = *Cyprinus americanus* Linnæus.

This genus is one of the most strongly marked in the family. It has been confounded by all European writers with *Umbrina*, with which it has not very much in common except the presence of the barbel at the chin. All the species are American, and most of them are closely re-

lated to each other. Two of them, however (*littoralis*, *elongatus*), while retaining the external form and appearance of the others, differ from them widely in the form of the lower pharyngeal teeth and in the presence of gill-rakers. These we have placed in a distinct subgenus, which we have called *Umbrula*. Another species (*ophicephalus*) is also somewhat aberrant and represents a third subgenus (*Cirrimens*).

The species of *Menticirrhus* are all bottom fishes. The low, elongate body, the large pectorals, and the obsolete air-bladder are all characters related to this peculiarity of habit.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF MENTICIRRIUS.

- a. Dorsal spines about 13; head very low, thick, sub-terete, the snout blunt and very prominent; lower pharyngeals with acute teeth; gill-rakers obsolete. (*Cirrimens* Gill.)
- b. Body formed as usual in *Menticirrhus*; long and low, little compressed; head with very convex cross-outlines, high in front, gibbous above the nostrils; profile depressed above eye; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; projecting for one-third its length; eye small, 5 or 6; mouth very small, inferior, the outer teeth in the upper jaw moderately enlarged; maxillary reaching to opposite middle of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers minute, reduced to little fleshy projections; gill openings contracted, the membranes more united below than in other species; preopercle with flexible cilia; lower pharyngeals small, the teeth mostly pointed; spinous dorsal high, the longest spines $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, not reaching tips of ventrals; caudal S-shaped, the lower lobe the longer. Color, dark gray; pectorals dusky. Head 4; depth 4. D. XII-I, 23; A. I, 8; scales 74 (pores) *OPHICEPHALUS*, 94.
- aa. Dorsal spines usually eleven; head not terete, more depressed, with lower snout.
- c. Gill-rakers obsolete, reduced to tubercular prominences, covered with teeth similar to those on the other gill arches; lower pharyngeals narrow, the teeth villiform or cardiform, all of them acute or conical, none with rounded heads (molar); teeth in the outer series of upper jaw more or less enlarged; scales on breast large. (*Menticirrhus*.)
- d. Soft dorsal rather short, its rays I, 18 to I, 22; snout prominent.
Snout very prominent, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head, its tip slightly turned upward, projecting beyond the premaxillaries for a distance about two-thirds diameter of the eye; spinous dorsal elevated, its longest spines $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching beyond front of soft dorsal; eye large, but considerably smaller than in *M. nasus*, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth comparatively small, inferior, the maxillary reaching middle of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; posterior margin of spinous dorsal deeply concave; rays of soft dorsal low, subequal; caudal deeply f-shaped, the upper lobe much the longer, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in pectorals; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; lateral line concurrent with the back. Color, bluish above, silvery below; spinous dorsal dusky; lining of gill cavity and inner side of pectorals dusky. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 22; A. I, 8; scales 6-50-10 *SIMUS*, 95.
- ee. Snout less prominent, about 4 in head, its tip not recurved; dorsal spines not elevated, the longest barely reaching soft dorsal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head.

f. Dorsal rays X-I, 22; eye very large, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout projecting beyond lower jaw for a distance about equal to half the diameter of the eye; mouth small, inferior, the maxillary reaching to below middle of eye, 3 in head; pectoral $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head, caudal fin *f*-shaped, the upper lobe pointed, the lower rounded. Color, silvery; fins blackish. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 22; A. I, 8; scales 6-54-14 *NASUS*, 96.

ff. Dorsal rays X-I, 19 or 20.

g. Snout low and pointed, $3\frac{2}{3}$ in head, projecting much beyond the premaxillaries; eye rather large, $5\frac{1}{2}$ in head; body long and low, with rather depressed profile, and low, sharp snout; maxillary extending beyond pupil, 3 in head; preopercular serræ somewhat bony, stiffer, and more distinct than in any other species, rather small and distant; gill-rakers minute, about half length of nostril; outer teeth of upper jaw much enlarged, as in *M. alburnus*; scales on breast large; dorsal spines high, the longest reaching beyond front of soft dorsal, $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head; pectorals rather short, $1\frac{1}{2}$. Color, plain, dark gray above, paler below; gill cavity dusky; lower fins all dark. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 4. D. IX-I, 20; A. I, 9; scales 55 (pores).

AGASSIZI, 97.

gg. Snout rather short and blunt, 4 in head, projecting beyond premaxillaries for about half a diameter of the eye; eye small, 7 in head; maxillary reaching nearly to posterior margin of eye, 3 in head; outer teeth of upper jaw much enlarged; pectoral long, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventral 2 in head; longest dorsal spine as long as pectoral, anal spine half as long as the rays; upper lobe of caudal not produced. Color, plumbeous, bright silvery below; lower fins mostly black. Head 3 in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 18 to 20; A. I, 9; scales 6-50-14.

PANAMENSIS, 98.

dd. Soft dorsal longer, its rays I, 23 to I, 25.

h. Mouth comparatively large, the maxillary reaching to below middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth on lower pharyngeals acute; back and sides usually with oblique dusky bars; lower lobe of caudal longest.

i. Outer teeth of upper jaw decidedly enlarged; dorsal spines not much elevated, the longest usually not reaching front of soft dorsal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head. Coloration, grayish silvery, the dark markings not pronounced and often obsolete.

j. Dorsal rays X-I, 22 or 23; snout rather shorter and less pointed than in *M. americanus*, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth smaller, the maxillary 3 in head. Coloration usually plain, sometimes very dark, otherwise as in *Menticirrhus americanus*. Head $3\frac{2}{3}$; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 22 or 23 (rarely 24); A. I, 7; scales 55 (6-52-10) *MARTINICENSIS*, 99.

jj. Dorsal rays X-I, 24 or 25; snout longer, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; maxillary reaching nearly to middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 in head; eye small, 2 in snout; teeth villiform, in broad bands, the outer series of the upper jaw very much enlarged, larger than in the other species; ventrals short, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in pectorals; pectorals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; caudal *f*-shaped, the broad rounded lower lobe longer than the acute upper; scales all ctenoid; those of the breast larger and regularly placed. Color, grayish silvery, with obscure darker clouds along the back and sides; these marks

- forming dusky bars, running obliquely forward and downward to considerably below the lateral line, these often obsolete; the bar at the nape saddle-like; lining of gill cavity dusky; pectoral yellowish, dusky at tip; an obscure dusky streak along lower parts of sides running into lower lobe of caudal. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$; depth 4 to 5. D. X-I, 24 or 25; A. I, 7; scales 6-55 (pores)-12. *AMERICANUS*, 100.
- ii. Outer teeth of upper jaw less enlarged; spinous dorsal elevated, the longest spine reaching past front of soft dorsal, its length $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; coloration strongly marked, body scarcely silvery. Profile slightly depressed above the eyes; eyes small, $2\frac{1}{3}$ in snout, 2 in interorbital area, about 7 in head; snout long, bluntnish, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; mouth large; maxillary reaching middle of eye, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in pectorals, which are $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales all ctenoid. Color dusky gray above, sometimes blackish, the back and sides with distinct dark oblique cross-bands running downwards and forwards, the anterior one at the nape extending downward, meeting the second and thus forming a V-shaped blotch on each side; a dark lateral streak bounding the pale color of the belly, most distinct posteriorly, and extending on lower lobe of caudal; inside of gill-cavity scarcely dusky; pectorals dark. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$ to $4\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 26 or 27; A. I, 8; scales 7-53 (pores)-14. *SAXATILIS*, 101.
- hh. Mouth smaller, the maxillary reaching scarcely to front of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth on lower pharyngeals bluntnish; coloration grayish, with dark streaks along the rows of scales. Snout long, little projecting, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye small, 7 in head, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in snout, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in interorbital area; outer teeth in upper jaw moderately enlarged, about as in *M. saxatilis*; lower pharyngeals a little broader than in *M. americanus*, the teeth coarser, and many of them bluntnish, none of them really molar, those of the inner posterior corner of the bone much enlarged; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in pectorals, which are $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; scales all ctenoid. Color sooty-grayish, with bright reflections; the back, all the fins, and under side of head dusky; undulating lines along sides running upward and backward, made of dark points in center of each scale; back often with very faint dark cross-bars; edge of opercle dusky; lining of gill-cavity slightly dusky. Head 4 in length; depth 4 to 5. D. X-I, 25 or 26; A. I, 8; scales 7-60-11. *UNDULATUS*, 102.
- cc. Gill-rakers present, very short and somewhat slender; lower pharyngeals rather broad; some or nearly all of the teeth molar, i. e., enlarged, with thickened, rounded heads, the molar teeth covering at least the anterior portion of the bone; teeth in the outer series of upper jaw scarcely larger than the others; scales on breast small. (*Umbrula* Jordan & Eigenmann.)
- k. Upper lobe of caudal longer than lower; scales rather small, about 25 in an oblique series from vent forward to lateral line; axillary scale one-third length of pectoral; snout very little projecting; gill-rakers very short, 3+5, the longest about one-third diameter of pupil; lower pharyngeal bones narrower than in *littoralis*, the molar teeth smaller, covering the whole anterior part of the bone; conical teeth on posterior part of the bone, the outermost row enlarged; body

more elongate than in other species; profile low, little convex; eye small, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in snout, 7 in head; snout long, 3 in head; mouth small, the maxillary scarcely reaching front of eye, 3 in head; second dorsal spine $1\frac{1}{3}$ in head; anterior soft rays of dorsal almost twice as long as the posterior ones, caudal with an *f*-shaped margin; ventrals $1\frac{2}{3}$ in pectorals; pectorals $1\frac{2}{3}$ in head. Color bluish on sides and back, silvery below, without stripes or bands. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{4}$. D. X-I, 22 to 24; A. I, 7; scales 5-53-13. *ELONGATUS*, 103.

kk. Upper lobe of caudal not longer than lower; scales rather large, 15 to 18 in an oblique series from vent upward and forward to lateral line; axillary scale not one-fourth length of pectoral; snout distinctly projecting beyond mouth, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; gill-rakers larger than in other species, the longest about $\frac{1}{2}$ length of pupil, the number $X + 7$; lower pharyngeal bones broad, most of the teeth developed as coarse molars, only those along the posterior margin conical; maxillary reaching past front of orbit, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; outer teeth of upper jaw scarcely enlarged; longest dorsal spines reaching past front of soft dorsal, the free margin of the fin concave; caudal rather deeply lunate, the lower lobe rounded, the upper pointed; ventrals $1\frac{2}{3}$ in pectorals, which are $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color silvery gray above, with bluish and bronze reflections, immaculate; a dark-bronze shade along sides on level of pectorals, extending to tail and along cheeks; belly below this abruptly white; dorsals light brown, spinous dorsal black at tip, the base narrowly white; caudal pale, its tip usually black; inner lining of pectoral and ventrals blackish; gill cavity pale. Head $3\frac{1}{4}$ in length; depth $4\frac{1}{2}$. D. X-I, 23 to 25; A. I, 7; scales 6-53 (pores)-12 *LITORALIS*, 104.

94. MENTICIRRUS OPHICEPHALUS.

Umbrina ophicephalus Jenyns, Zool. Beagle, Fish, 45, 1842 (Coquimbo, Chili). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 277, 1860 (copied).

Cirrimens ophicephalus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 17, 1862.

Habitat.—Coast of Chili and Peru.

This singular species is represented by numerous specimens large and small in the Museum of Comparative Zoology. These are from Caldera, Chili (8603, M. C. Z.), and from Callao, Peru. It seems to us that the name *Cirrimens* proposed for this species can be used for a subgenus only.

95. MENTICIRRUS SIMUS.

Menticirrus nasus Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 and 111 (Mazatlan and Panama) (not *Umbrina nasus* Günther). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Menticirrus simus Jordan & Eigenmann, sp. nov.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America; Mazatlan to Panama.

This species is known to us from the specimens collected by Dr. C. H. Gilbert at Mazatlan and Panama.

It was at first identified somewhat doubtfully with *Menticirrus nasus* by Jordan and Gilbert. The examination of the original type of *Um-*

brina nasus has convinced Dr. Jordan that this is a different species. We here describe in detail the typical specimen under the name of *Menticirrhus simus*.

Menticirrhus simus sp. nov. Type No. 28292, U. S. Nat. Mus.

Depth 4 in length (5 in total); head $3\frac{1}{2}$ ($4\frac{1}{3}$). D. X-I, 22; A. I, 8; scales 6-52-10.

Body robust; back somewhat compressed and regularly arched; depth about uniform between the first dorsal spine and the first soft ray; caudal peduncle rather heavy; distance from last dorsal ray to beginning of middle caudal ray slightly more than 2 in head.

Head subconical; profile steep, slightly depressed over the posterior part of eyes; snout abruptly blunted, turned up anteriorly, suggesting the form of snout in the genus *Heterodon*; five large incisions in the upper lip, three large oval and three small round pores above them, as in other species of *Menticirrhus*; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye $5\frac{2}{3}$ in head; mouth horizontal, inferior, the snout extending $\frac{1}{4}$ of its length beyond the premaxillary; maxillary extending past middle of eye, slightly more than 3 in head.

Teeth in lower jaw villiform in rather broad bands; upper jaw with a band of small teeth and an outer series of enlarged ones; largest teeth of the outer series slightly longer than the anterior nostril; preopercle with fine widely placed teeth on its membranous border; gill-rakers obsolete; pseudobranchiae very large; lower pharyngeal teeth villiform, those of the inner series much enlarged; first dorsal beginning behind base of pectoral; the first spine minute; the second spine highest, reaching to third dorsal ray, $1\frac{1}{5}$ in head; posterior margin of spinous dorsal deeply concave; dorsal soft rays low, subequal; caudal unequally lunate, the upper lobe much the longer, $1\frac{1}{5}$ in head; anal inserted under fifth dorsal ray; its spine weak, 5 in head; the anterior anal rays much the longer, but not extending to tip of last rays; ventrals $1\frac{3}{5}$ in pectorals; pectorals $1\frac{1}{6}$ in head.

Scales large; all strongly ctenoid; those in the lateral line and those above it more or less covered with smaller ones. Soft dorsal, with a very narrow scaly sheath. Bases of pectorals and caudal densely scaly, the rest of the fins naked. Color, grayish above, lighter below; lower parts of sides with numerous dark points; faint lines following the rows of scales above; spinous dorsal dusky, anal with dark specks; axil and inner margin of pectoral dusky; other fins plain; lining of gill cavity dusky.

This species differs from *Menticirrhus nasus* (Günther) in the size of the eye, the size of the teeth, and the size and shape of the snout. Dr. Jordan has examined the type of *M. nasus* and verified the description of Günther. The large size of the eye in *M. nasus* is not due to the immaturity of the typical example.

96. MENTICIRRUS NASUS.

Umbrina nasus Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 426, 1869 (Panama). Jordan, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1883, 289 (Central America).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Mazatlan to Panama.

This species is known to us from Dr. Günther's original type. No others have since been taken, if, as we suppose, our *Menticirrhus simus* is really a distinct species.

97. MENTICIRRUS AGASSIZI.

Menticirrhus agassizi Jordan, sp. nov. (Caldera).

Habitat.—Coast of Chili.

This species is known from a single specimen, $6\frac{1}{2}$ inches long, in the Museum of Comparative Zoology, from Caldera, Chili. It was found mixed with specimens of *Menticirrhus ophicephalus*, in bottle 8603.

This species is named in honor of Professor Louis Agassiz.

98. MENTICIRRUS PANAMENSIS.

Umbrina panamensis Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iv, 9, 1875 (Panama).

Menticirrhus panamensis Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan); l. c., 111 (Panama). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Mazatlan to Panama.

This species is known to us from specimens taken by Dr. Gilbert at Panama and Mazatlan.

99. MENTICIRRUS MARTINICENSIS.

Umbrina martinicensis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 186, 1830 (Martinique). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 323, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 277, 1860 (copied). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 539 (note on type of Cuvier & Valenciennes).

Umbrina gracilis Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 189, 1830 (Brazil). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 277, 1860 (copied). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 539 (note on type of Cuvier & Valenciennes).

Umbrina arenata Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 190 (Brazil). Jenyns, Zool. Beagle, Fishes, 44, 1842 (Bahia Blanca; Maldonado). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 276, 1860 (Jamaica).

Umbrina phalana Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, ix, 20, 1869 (Santos, Brazil).

Umbrina januaria Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., v, 122, 1876 (Rio Janeiro).

Habitat.—West Indies to Patagonia.

We have examined the types of *Umbrina martinicensis* and *U. gracilis* in the museum at Paris. We have also examined numerous specimens in the museum at Cambridge, apparently identical with these, from Rio Janeiro, Rio Grande do Sul, Victoria, Bahia, and Montevideo. The species seems to be as common in South America as its analogue *M. americanus* is in North America. The two are exceedingly alike, and *martinicensis* is probably a geographical variety of the other, distinguished perhaps by a slightly smaller number of rays in the dorsal fin.

Were it not that the Sciaenoid fauna of South America is chiefly different from that of North America, we should scarcely hesitate to place *martinicensis* in the synonymy of *americanus*. *Umbrina januaria* is apparently based on the specimens from Rio Janeiro examined by us. *Umbrina gracilis* was based on the dried skin of a young example, distorted and varnished.

Umbrina arenata, as described by Cuvier & Valenciennes, does not differ at all from *M. martinicensis*. As described by Dr. Günther, the scales are 72 to 78 in *arenata*. It is evident, however, that Günther has counted not the pores, but the number of vertical series of scales, and these range from 70 to 80 in nearly all of our species, the number exceeding the number of pores by about 20, and similarly exceeding the number of oblique series. We see no reason, therefore, for not placing *arenata* in the synonymy of *martinicensis*.

100. MENTICIRRUS AMERICANUS.

(THE CAROLINA WHITING.)

[Plate VIII.]

Alburnus americanus (the Whiting) Catesby, Nat. Hist. Carolinas, etc., pl. 12, f. 2 (Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 195).

Cyprinus americanus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 321, 1758 (based on the Whiting of Catesby) (not *Cyprinus americanus* of the twelfth edition, which is a Cyprinoid, *Notemigonus boscii* Cuv. & Val.).

Perca alburnus Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 482, 1886 (on specimens sent from Charleston by Dr. Garden). Schöpf, Schrift. Naturf. Freunde Berlin, viii, 162, 1788. Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 87, 1801.

Centropomus alburnus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 249, 257, 264, 1802.

Sciæna alburnus Gronow, Cat. Fish., ed. Gray, 51, 1854 (South Carolina).

Umbrina alburnus Cuvier & Valenciennes, v, 180, 1830 (in part). Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, 136, plate 20, fig. 2, 1856 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 275, 1860.

Menticirrus alburnus Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 101, 1876 (Chesapeake Bay). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 378 (Beaufort). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 113 (Saint John's River, Florida). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 132 (Pensacola). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 282 (Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 666 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 577, 1883; Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 376, plate 127 b, 1884. Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1885, 202 (Linnean types). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Umbrina phalana Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1858, 167 (Indianola, Brazos Santiago). Girard, U. S. and Mex. Bound. Survey, 13, 1859.

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, Chesapeake Bay to Texas.

This species is very common on the sandy coasts of our Southern States, where it is a food-fish of some importance.

As elsewhere stated, this may be identical with the South American *Menticirrus martinicensis*.

This species has generally received the specific name of *alburnus* given to it by Linnæus in the twelfth edition of the *Systema Naturæ*. In the tenth edition of the *Systema*, Linnæus had already given the specific name of *americanus* to the Whiting of Catesby. There is no doubt that Catesby had this common species in mind, although his rude figure resembles the Surf Whiting (*littoralis*) fully as much as it does the common Whiting.

101. MENTICIRRUS SAXATILIS.

(THE KING-FISH; SEA MINK.)

[Plate IX.]

Johnius saxatilis Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 75, 1801 (New York).

Menticirrus saxatilis Jordan, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 288, 1883 (note on type of Bloch & Schneider). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 129 (Key West). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Umbrina alburnus DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 78, plate 7, fig. 20, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 323, 1846 (Massachusetts) (not *Perca alburnus* L.).

Sciæna nebulosa Mitchell, Trans. Lit. & Phil. Soc. New York, 406, plate 3, fig. 5, 1815 (New York) (not of Gmelin).

Umbrina nebulosa Storer, Fishes Massachusetts, 35, 1839 (near Boston light house). Ayres, Fishes of Brookhaven, L. I., 259, 1842. Storer, Hist. Fish. Mass., 124, plate ix, fig. 4, 1867 (Boston light-house; Lynn; Provincetown). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 275, 1860 (New York).

Menticirrus nebulosus Goode & Bean, Fish. Essex Co. and Mass. Bay, 17, 1879 (Danvers; Spite Bridge; Marblehead light-house). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (Wood's Holl, Mass; Noank, Conn.; Cohasset Narrows, Mass). Goode, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 113 (St. John's River, Florida). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 282 (Pensacola). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 577, 1883. Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 375, plate 127a, 1884.

Habitat.—Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, Boston to Key West and Pensacola, most common northward.

This species is generally common along the coasts of our Northern States, its greatest abundance being north of the limit of *M. americanus*, a species which it very closely resembles, the differences being of comparatively little importance. Southward its distribution seems to be peculiar. A large specimen was obtained by Dr. Jordan at Pensacola and several small ones at Key West. All these are very dark in color, but not otherwise evidently different from the common northern form. The name *saxatilis* should be used for this species. The original type of *Johnius saxatilis*, sent by Schöpf (?) to Bloch, is still in the museum at Berlin, where it has been examined by us. The name *saxatilis* for the Whiting, like that of *regalis* for the Weak-fish, came about through a confusion of the vernacular names, the supposed "King-fish" being named "*Johnius regalis*" by Bloch, and the supposed "Rock-fish," "*Johnius saxatilis*."

102. MENTICIRRUS UNDULATUS.

(THE CALIFORNIA WHITING OR "SUCKER.")

Umbrina undulata Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1854, 148 (San Diego, Cal.).
Girard, U. S. Pacif. R. R. Survey, 121, 1859 (San Diego, Cal.).

Menticirrus undulatus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1862, 17 (name only). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 456 (Santa Barbara, San Pedro, San Diego). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1881, 48 (Santa Barbara, southward). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 578 and 933, 1883. Rosa Smith, West American Scientist, 1885, 47 (San Diego). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Habitat.—Coast of Southern California, north to Santa Barbara.

This species is rather common along the sandy coasts of Southern California, where it is a food-fish of moderate importance. Girard's type of *Umbrina undulata* has been examined by us. It is a young example of this species.

103. MENTICIRRUS ELONGATUS.

Umbrina elongata Günther, Proc. Zool. Soc. Lond., 1864, 148 (Chiapam). Günther, Fishes Central America, 387 and 425, plate 64, fig. 2, 1869 (Chiapam). Steindachner, Ichthyol. Beitr., iv, 9, 1875 (Panama north to "San Diego," confounded with *M. undulatus*).

Menticirrus elongatus Jordan & Gilbert, Bull. U. S. Fish Com., 1882, 107 (Mazatlan). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Umbrula elongata Jordan & Eigenmann.

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Mazatlan to Panama.

This species is rather common on the west coast of Mexico. Its relations are evidently with *M. littoralis*, but in several respects it represents a transition towards *Menticirrus undulatus*, its nearest relative among the typical *Menticirrhi*.

104. MENTICIRRUS LITTORALIS.

(THE SURF WHITING; SILVER WHITING.)

Umbrina littoralis Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina (first edition), 142, plate 20, fig 1, 1856 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 276, 1860 (copied).

Menticirrus littoralis Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 378 (Beaufort). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (Florida). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 283 (Pensacola, Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 606 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Synopsis Fish. North Am., 933, 1883. Bean, Internat. Fishery Exhib., 56, 1883 (Matanzas River Inlet, Florida). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Umbrula littoralis Jordan & Eigenmann.

Habitat.—South Atlantic and Gulf coasts of the United States, North Carolina to Texas.

This species is generally common in the surf along the sandy shores of the Southern States. It resembles *M. americanus* somewhat in external characters so that it has often been confounded with it by careless observers. Its technical distinctions are, however, numerous, and in the

form of its pharyngeal teeth it differs in a marked degree from all the other species of *Menticirrhus* except *M. elongatus*. Were it not that *M. elongatus* and *M. undulatus* are both in several respects intermediate between *M. littoralis* and the typical forms of *Menticirrhus*, we should regard the subgenus *Umbrula*, based on *M. littoralis*, as certainly worthy of full generic rank.

Genus XXII.—PARALONCHURUS.

Paralonchurus Bocourt, Nouv. Arch. Mus., iv, 21, 1869 (*petersi*).

TYPE: *Paralonchurus petersi* Bocourt.

This genus seems to be most nearly related to *Lonchurus*, being in some respects intermediate between that and ordinary Sciænoids. But one species has been described.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF PARALONCHURUS.

- a. Body long and low; head slender, flattish, somewhat spongy above, with protuberant snout; eye $8\frac{1}{2}$ in head; snout $3\frac{3}{8}$; interorbital area $3\frac{1}{4}$; mouth horizontal; maxillary $2\frac{2}{3}$ in head; teeth in villiform bands; upper jaw with a conspicuous outer row of larger ones; chin with 5 pores, a multifid barbel at the symphysis; rami with a row of slender barbels along inner edge; dorsal low, highest behind; soft dorsal scaled at base only; caudal pointed, as long as head; anal spines small; second spine as long as snout; pectorals very large, $2\frac{1}{4}$ in body; scales rather large, cycloid; color light olive with faint stripes on rows of scales; pectoral dusky; other fins plain. Head $3\frac{1}{4}$ in length; depth 4. D. X-I, 30; A. II, 9; scales 8-50-16 PETERSI, 105.

105. PARALONCHURUS PETERSI.

Paralonchurus petersi Bocourt, Nouv. Archives du Muséum, iv, 1869, 22 (San Salvador). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886 (Panama).

Habitat.—Pacific coast of tropical America, Panama.

This rare species is now known to us from the original account of Dr. Bocourt and from Dr. Jordan's notes on the original type in the museum at Paris. Specimens were later taken by Dr. Gilbert at Panama, but all of these have been destroyed by fire.

A second species of *Paralonchurus* was obtained by Dr. Gilbert, but the typical specimens were destroyed by fire and no description has been published.

The following is Bocourt's description:

"D. X-I, 30; A. II, 9. C. 17; P. 21; V. I, 5. L. lat. 50. L. trans. $\frac{8}{16}$.

"CARACTÈRES.—Corps allongé comprimé; la plus grande hauteur, prise à la naissance des pectorales, est contenue quatre fois dans la longueur (la caudale non comprise), la tête y entrant trois fois et demie. Museau déprimé, percé en avant d'un gros pore; deux lobes arrondis au-devant de la bouche, au-dessus de chacun desquels se trouve un autre pore. Diamètre horizontal de l'œil, compris trois fois et demie dans la largeur de l'espace interorbitaire, et près de dix fois dans la

longueur de la tête. Bouche placée sous le museau, l'extrémité du maxillaire ne dépassant pas verticalement le bord postérieur de l'orbite. Quatre pores sous la mâchoire inférieure; entre les deux premiers on aperçoit un petit barbillon multiside touchant à la symphyse, et il y en a dix d'une grande ténuité placés sur chacune des branches de la mâchoire inférieure. Préopercule arrondi; une crénelure membraneuse existe sur son bord postérieur. Ligne latérale infléchie au-dessus de l'anale. Pectorales très développées. Dorsale profondément échancrée et à rayons épineux faibles; le premier, très court, prend naissance au-dessus de l'origine des pectorales; le quatrième, le plus long, égale la largeur de l'espace interorbitaire. Ventrals attachées au même niveau que les précédentes. Anale petite, et à épines médiocres. Caudale pointue, sa longueur égale celle de la tête. Anus plus éloigné, de l'extrémité de la queue que du bout du museau. Vessie aérienne épaisse, argentée et prolongée en une pointe très déliée. Écailles cycloïdes.

"Un seul exemplaire a été rapporté de La Union, République du Salvador.

"Longueur totale, 0^m 256."

Genus XXIII.—LONCHURUS.

Lonchurus Bloch, Syst. Ichth., plate 360, 1793 (*barbatus* = *lanceolatus*).

TYPE: *Lonchurus barbatus* Bloch.

This genus contains apparently but a single species, a rather rare inhabitant of the Caribbean waters. This species we have not been able to examine.

The genus seems to be one of the most remarkable of the family. Except its analogue, *Paralonchurus*, it seems to have no very near relatives.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF LONCHURUS.

- a. [Body long and low; the profile straightish, depressed over the eyes; interorbital area as broad as eye, which is as long as snout; snout small, 10 in head; snout soft, depressed, with conspicuous pore at tip; mouth oblique, subinferior; maxillary reaching a little beyond eye; teeth in fine bands; barbels 2, not longer than eye; preopercle with crenulate, membranaceous margin; upper ray of pectoral much elongate, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in body; caudal elongate lanceolate, 4 in body; first ray of ventral reaching front of anal; anal short and high, its spines weak, inserted before middle of soft dorsal; scales mostly cycloid; lateral line becoming straight above anal; color brownish; pectoral and caudal fins black, other fins dusky. Depth 4 in length. D. X or XI-I, 38 to 40; A. II, 7 or 8; lateral line 60 to 70.] (*Cuvier & Valenciennes*). **LANCEOLATUS**, 106.

106. LONCHURUS LANCEOLATUS.

Perca lanceolata Bloch, Nov. Act. Sc. Copenh., iii, 383.

Lonchurus lanceolatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 317, 1860 (copied).

Lonchurus barbatus Bloch, Ichthyol., plate 360, 1793. Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichthyol., 102, 1801 (Surinam). Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 193, 1830 (described from Bloch's type).

Lonchurus depressus Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichthyol., 102, 1801 (Surinam). Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 195, 1830 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 317, 1860 (West Indies).

Habitat.—Coast of Guiana.

This remarkable species we have had no opportunity to examine. We follow the suggestion of Dr. Günther, in regarding the nominal species, *Lonchurus depressus*, as a synonym of *L. lanceolatus*.

Genus XXIV.—POGONIAS.

Pogonias Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 138, 1802 (*fasciatus* = *cromis*).

Pogonathus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 121, 1803 (*courbina* = *cromis*).

TYPE: *Pogonias fasciatus* Lacépède.

This genus contains, so far as known, but a single species, a large coarse fish of our Atlantic coasts.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF POGONIAS.

- a. Body oblong, the back much elevated, ventral outline almost straight, the depth rapidly diminishing from the first dorsal spine backwards; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; profile rather steep and slightly convex; mouth moderate, inferior, the maxillary not reaching middle of eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; teeth in broad bands, the outer series above scarcely enlarged; snout blunt, longer than eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ to 4 in head; lower pharyngeals large, completely united, covered with many blunt molars and a small patch of conical teeth at the outer posterior corner; gill-rakers $4+12$, very short, slender; dorsal spines high but slender, the 4th highest, 2 in head; caudal subtruncate; second anal spine very large, about 2 in head; pectorals about as long as head; scales large, those on breast small; color grayish silvery, with 4 or 5 broad dark vertical bars, these disappearing with age; fins blackish. D. X-I, 19 to 21; A. II, 5 or 6; scales 5-47 to 50-9 CROMIS, 107.
 x. Body deep, the depth about $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length; snout blunt, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head. D. X-I, 21; scales 47; back usually without distinct oblique streaks. Var. *cromis*, 107 (a).
 xx. Body more elongate, the depth about 3 in length; snout more acute, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head. D. X-I, 19; scales 50; color more silvery, with oblique faint dark streaks along the rows of scales above..... Var. *courtina*, 107 (b).

107. POGONIAS CROMIS.

(THE DRUM.)

[Plates X and XI.]

a. Var. *cromis*.

Labrus cromis Linnaeus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 479, 1766 (Carolina). Gmelin, Syst. Nat., 1292, 1788 (Carolina).

Pogonias cromis Goode & Bean, Fishes of Essex County and Massachusetts Bay, 17, 1879 (Provincetown). Goode & Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1879, 131 (Pensacola). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 93 (St. John's River, Florida; near Charleston, S. C.). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 93, 1885 (name only).

Labrus chromis Schöpf, Schrift. Naturforsch. Freunde Berlin, viii, 155, 1788 (New York). *Sciæna chromis* Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 82, 1801 (Carolina). Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iv, 314, 1802.

Pogonias chromis Cuvier, Règne Animal, plate 29, fig. 1, 1829. Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 206, 1830 (New York; Montevideo). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 80, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 324, 1846 (copied). Holbrook, Ichth. S. Carolina, ed. 1, 112, plate 16, fig. 2 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 270, 1860 (Lake Pontchartrain). Uhler & Lugger, Fishes of Maryland, 98, 1876 (Eastern Shore, Maryland). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1878, 377 (Beaufort). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 280 (Pensacola; Galveston). Jordan & Gilbert, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1882, 605 (Charleston). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 568, 1883. Jordan & Swain, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 233 (Cedar Key). Jordan & Meek, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1884, 237 (St. John's River, Florida). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 367, plates 121 and 122, 1884.

Pogonias fasciatus Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., iii, 137, 1802. Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 210, pl. 118, 1830 (New York). DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 81, pl. 14, fig. 40, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 324, 1846 (copied). Girard, U. S. & Mex. Bound. Survey, 11, 1859 (Brazos Santiago). Holbrook, Ichthyol. S. Carolina, 118, pl. 16, fig. 1, 1860 (South Carolina). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 270, 1860 (copied). Günther, Ann. and Mag. Nat. Hist., July, 1880 (Rio Plata).

Mugil grunniens Mitchell, Report in part Fishes New York, 16, 1814 (New York).

Labrus grunniens Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., 405, 1815 (New York).

Mugil gigas Mitchell, Report in part Fishes New York, 16, 1814 (New York).

Sciæna gigas Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., 413, 1815 (New York).

Pogonias gigas Ayres, Fishes of Brookhaven, L. I., 260, 1842 (Brookhaven, L. I.).

Sciæna fusca Mitchell, Trans. Lit. and Phil. Soc., 409, 1815 (New York).

b. Var. *courbina*.

Pogonathus courbina Lacépède, Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 121, 1803 (Rio Plata).

Habitat.—Atlantic coasts of America; Long Island to Montevideo.

This species is common on the sandy coasts of the United States, where it reaches a very large size. It is probably the largest of all the *Sciænidæ*. It is a rather coarse fish, of no great value as food.

There is no doubt that all the North American names belong to a single species, the form called *fasciatus* being simply the young.

The South American form (*courbina*) is scarcely different from the Northern. We have examined specimens in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Grande do Sul and other localities in Brazil. We have found only the slight differences noticed in the analysis above.

Genus XXV.—APLODINOTUS.

Aplodinotus Rafinesque, Journ. de Phys., 1819, 418 (*grunniens*).

Amblodon Rafinesque, Journ. de Phys., 1819, 418 (based on the pharyngeal teeth of *A. grunniens*, supposed to belong to a species of Buffalo-fish).

Haploidonotus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phil., 1861, 102 (*grunniens*) (amended orthography).

Eutychelithus Jordan, Man. Vert., ed. i, 242, 1876 (*richardsoni*=*grunniens*).

TYPE: *Aplodinotus grunniens* Rafinesque.

This genus contains a single species, a large coarse fish, confined to the fresh waters of the United States. The genus differs from *Rondador* chiefly in the complete union of the very large lower pharyngeal bones.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF APLODINOTUS.

a. Body oblong; back much elevated and compressed; depth $2\frac{3}{4}$ in length; head $3\frac{1}{2}$; profile long and steep, straightish; head slightly compressed; mouth moderate, subinferior, low; the maxillary reaching past middle of eye, 3 in head; teeth in villiform bands, the outer above scarcely enlarged; lower pharyngeals completely united; the teeth less blunt than in *Pogonias*; gill-rakers short, thickish, 6+14; preopercle obscurely serrated; snout bluntnish, longer than eye, $4\frac{1}{2}$ in head; dorsal spines strong and high; second spine highest, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; a scaly sheath at the base of spines; the two dorsals connected; second anal spine very large, more than half the length of the head; caudal double truncate; scales rather thin and deep, the series somewhat oblique; scales on breast rather large; color grayish silvery, dusky above, sometimes very dark; back sometimes with oblique dusky streaks along the rows of scales. D. X, 30; A. II, 7; scales 9-55-13.

GRUNNIENS, 108.

108. APLODINOTUS GRUNNIENS.

(THE FRESH-WATER DRUM, GASPERGOU, THUNDER-PUMPER, SHEEPSHEAD, CROAKER, BUBBLER, WHITE PERCH.).

[Plate XII.]

Aplodonotus grunniens Rafinesque, Journ. de Phys., 1819, 88 (Ohio R.). Graham, Preliminary List Kansas Fishes, 77, 1884 (Kansas River). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 93, 1885 (name only).

Amblodon grunniens Rafinesque, Ichth. Ohiensis, 24, 1820 (Ohio R.). Agassiz, Am. Journ. Sci. and Arts, 1854 (Tennessee R.). Girard, U. S. Pac. R. R. Survey, 96, plate 23, 1859 (St. Louis; Arkansas R.; Poteau R.; Milk R.).

Haploidonotus grunniens Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 104. Jordan, Fishes of Upper Georgia, 319, 1876 (French Broad R.; Cumberland R.). Jordan, Man. Vert., ed. i, 241, 1876. Nelson, Fishes Illinois, 44, 1876 (Lake Michigan). Jordan, Cat. Fish. Illinois, 50, 1878 (La Salle; Peoria). Bean, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1880, 94 (Sandusky, O.; Cincinnati, O.; Detroit, Mich.; Au Sable Riv., Mich.). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North America, 567, 1883. Jordan, Ohio Geol. Survey, iv, 983, 1883 (Ohio R.; Great Lakes). Forbes, Catalogue Fish. Illinois, 62, 1884 (Lake Michigan; Illinois R., Ohio R.). Goode, Hist. Aquat. Anim., 370, plate 123, 1884.

Sciæna oscula Lesueur, Journ. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1822, 252, plate 13. Kirtland, Rept. Zool. Ohio, 168, 192, 1838 (Ohio).

Corvina oscula Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 98, 1836 (copied). Richardson, Faun. Bor. Amer., iii, 68, 1836. Kirtland, Bost. Journ. Nat. Hist., iii, 350, plate 6, fig. 3, 1840. DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 73, plate 21, fig. 63, 1842 (New York). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 319, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 297, 1860 (Ohio Canal; Lake Pontchartrain).

Sciæna grisca Lesueur, Journ. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1822, 254.

Corvina grisca DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 76, 1842 (New York).

Corvina richardsoni Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 100 (Lake Huron). Richardson, Faun. Bor. Amer., 64, 77, 1836. DeKay, New York Fauna, Fishes, 76, plate 20, fig. 55, 1842. Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 320, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 298, 1860 (copied).

Haploidonotus richardsoni Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 105 (name only).

Eutychelithus richardsoni Jordan, Man. Vert., ed. i, 242, 1876 (copied).

Amblodon concinnus Agassiz, Amer. Jour. Sci. Arts, 1854, 307 (Tennessee R.).

Haploidonotus concinnus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 104 (name only). Jordan, Man. Vert., ed. i, 242, 1876 (copied).

Amblodon lineatus Agassiz, Am. Jour. Sci. Arts, 1855, 307 (Osage River).

Haploidonotus lineatus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 105 (name only). Jordan, Man. Vert., ed. i, 242, 1876 (copied).

Amblodon neglectus Girard, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1858, 167 (Rio Grande). Girard, U. S. and Mex. Bound. Survey, 12, plate v, fig. 6-10, 1859 (Rio Grande, Matamoras).

Haploidonotus neglectus Gill, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1861, 105 (name only).

Corvina (Amblodon) neglecta Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, vi, 1867, 38 ("southern part of the west coast of the United States").

Habitat.—Fresh waters of the Eastern United States, chiefly west of the Alleghanies; Great Lakes to Dakota, and Texas.

This species is one of the common inhabitants of our deep and sluggish rivers and of our lakes. Under favorable circumstances it reaches a large size, and a weight of 40 to 50 pounds. It is held in rather low esteem as a food-fish, its flesh being rather coarse and flavorless. In the lake region, as the "Sheepshead," it is altogether worthless, but farther south it holds a higher rank, the "White Perch" of the Ohio being regarded as a tolerable food-fish. In Texas the same species, as the "Gaspergou," is regarded as one of the best of the river fish.

There is no doubt that all of the nominal species above enumerated should be referred to a single one, *A. grunniens*.

Genus XXVI.—EQUES.

Eques Bloch, Ichthyologia, 1793 (*americanus=lanceolatus*).

Equetus Rafinesque, Analyse de la Nature, 1815, 86 (substitute for *Eques*, the latter name being considered too short).

Pareques (Gill MSS.) Goode, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., v, 50, 1875 (*acuminatus*).

TYPE: *Eques americanus* Bloch = *Chætodon lanceolatus* L.

This genus is one of the most remarkable in the family in respect to its osteology, as well as to the coloration of some of its species. One of the four known species, *Eques acuminatus*, resembles considerably *Sciaena* and other typical members of the family, while the bizarre form and coloration of *Eques lanceolatus* gives it some resemblance to the Chætodonts. The two other species are, however, intermediate, and we know of no sufficient character on which *Pareques* can be maintained as a distinct genus.

ANALYSIS OF SPECIES OF EQUES.

- a. Dorsal rays X to XII-I, 36 to 46; first five or six of the interneurals* wedged in between the neurals of the second and third vertebrae, the rest between third and fourth. (*Pareques* Gill.)
- b. Profile elongate, rather steep, but not nearly vertical; distance from snout to first dorsal spine about equal to depth of body (form approaching that of *Sciaena umbra*).
- c. Dorsal spines little elevated, the longest about $5\frac{1}{2}$ in length of body; vertical fins unspotted; body oblong, compressed, the back somewhat elevated; eye about equal to snout, 4 in head; interorbital area not quite as broad as eye; preorbital $1\frac{1}{2}$ in eye; mouth larger than in *Eques punctatus*, max-

* Not examined in *Eques pulcher*.

illary reaching past middle of orbit; teeth of upper jaw slightly enlarged; gill-rakers short, rather slender, 6 + 9; caudal peduncle and fin less deep than in *Eques punctatus*; second anal spine slightly shorter than soft rays, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head; soft dorsal scaly; scales large, the series below lateral line slightly oblique; longitudinal streaks on body not following the rows of scales ACUMINATUS, 109.

- x. Color nearly black, with longitudinal whitish stripes on the body, not on the fins; one stripe from upper edge of eye straight to upper edge of caudal peduncle, one just above this to last rays of soft dorsal, two confluent behind from nape to middle of soft dorsal, two below the first from pectoral to base of caudal, the lowest to edge of caudal peduncle; fins dusky. Head 3; depth $2\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 38 to 40; A. II, 7; scales 50; eye 4 in head; snout $3\frac{1}{2}$; maxillary 3; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; longest dorsal spine $1\frac{3}{4}$; pectoral $1\frac{1}{4}$. (West Indian specimens). Var. *acuminatus*, 109 (a).
- xx. Coloration dark smutty brown, with traces only of seven paler streaks; region at base of soft dorsal darker; spinous dorsal, tips of ventrals, and inside of gill cavity black; fins otherwise smutty. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth $2\frac{3}{4}$. D. X-I, 40; A. II, 7; scales 6-51-10; second anal spine $2\frac{1}{2}$; eye 4; snout 4; maxillary $2\frac{1}{2}$. (Specimens from Charleston.)

Var. *umbrosus*, 109 (b).

- cc. Dorsal spines elongate, the longest $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length of body; soft parts of vertical fins with white spots; body robust, the back much compressed, the general form much as in *Eques acuminatus*, but the caudal peduncle deeper and more compressed; profile rather steep, depressed over the eye; snout slightly longer than eye, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in head; eye as wide as interorbital region; preorbital broad, as wide as eye; mouth small, sub-inferior; maxillary almost entirely concealed below the preorbital, $2\frac{1}{2}$ in head, reaching to below middle of eye; teeth in both jaws in broad bands, the outer series of the upper jaw enlarged; preopercle entire, the membrane with slight cilia; gill-rakers small, slender, 6 + 11; lower pharyngeals small; the teeth all conical, those of the posterior angle and inner series somewhat enlarged; anterior dorsal spines as high as body; membranes of the soft portions of the vertical fins closely scaled to the tip; caudal broadly rounded; anal short and high; second spine about $\frac{2}{3}$ of longest ray, 3 in head; anal spine placed midway between base of pectoral and base of caudal; pectorals and ventrals short and equal, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head. Color, dark brown, a light bar in front of eye extending around the chin, a second pale bar extending around the head immediately behind the eyes, a third extending from in front of dorsal over base of pectorals; a light bar along base of soft dorsal; a light bar extending from behind the elevated portion of the spinous dorsal downwards, dividing into two, the branches running straight back, the upper branch to beginning of last fourth of soft dorsal, the lower branch to base of caudal; 2 or 3 light, undulating longitudinal bars below these; fins all dark brown, the soft portions of the vertical fins with many whitish stellate spots. Head $3\frac{1}{2}$ in length; depth 3. D. XI or XII-I, 46; A. II, 6 or 7; scales 8-55 to 59-11 or 12. PUNCTATUS, 110.

- bb. [Profile very steep, "steeper than in *Eques lanceolatus*." Body deepest below first dorsal spine, thence rapidly tapering to the narrow caudal peduncle; eye 3 in head; snout $1\frac{1}{2}$ in eye; mouth subinferior, the thick convex snout projecting beyond it; first ventral ray filiform, $3\frac{1}{2}$ in body; longest dorsal spines $1\frac{1}{2}$ to $2\frac{1}{2}$ in length of body, their height nearly twice that of the body below them; color olivaceous, three dark-brown longitudinal bands along the sides, the middle one from eye backwards reaching tips of the middle caudal rays; the upper from occiput backward to end of soft dorsal; the lower from lower corner of eye to behind anal; two very

faint broad cross-bars, the anterior from base of first dorsal to ventrals, the next from middle of soft dorsal to anal; tip of snout and chin black; an oblique bar below eye; spinous dorsal, pectoral, and ventral black, edged with white; edges of caudal yellowish; anal with brown points anteriorly. Head $3\frac{3}{4}$ to $3\frac{1}{2}$ in total length; depth the same. D. X-I, 37 or 38; A. II, 7; lat. 1. 50.] (Steindachner). PULCHER, 111.

aa. Dorsal rays XIV or XV-I, 53; about twelve of the anterior interneurals wedged in between the occiput and the neural spine of the third vertebra; profile almost vertical, the distance from tip of snout to first dorsal spine much less than depth of body. (*Eques*).

d. Body deepest below first dorsal spine, rapidly tapering to the narrow caudal peduncle; profile very steep, little convex; eye little longer than snout, about 4 in head; preorbital broad, nearly as wide as eye; mouth small, slightly oblique; maxillary reaching to below anterior fourth of eye; teeth all villiform in broad bands, the outer scarcely enlarged; preopercle with a fringed membranous border; gill-rakers very short and slender, 6+9; anterior dorsal spines much elongate, $1\frac{1}{2}$ in body; soft rays low, the membranes scaled to the tips; anal small; its second spine 3 in head; ventrals $1\frac{1}{2}$ in head; pectorals scarcely shorter; color, light yellowish; a narrow brownish band from the corner of the mouth up across the middle of the eye, and meeting its fellow on top of head; another broader band edged with a narrow white line on each side from the nape down and back over opercle, meeting its fellow between the ventral fins and extending to the tips of their outer rays; a third and still broader band, also bordered by white, extending from the tips of the dorsal spines to their base, then downward and backward to the tips of the middle caudal rays; body below this band silvery white; above it somewhat darker. Head 4 in length; depth $2\frac{1}{2}$. D. XIV to XVI-I, 53; A. II, 5; scales irregular, with smaller ones intermixed. LANCEOLATUS, 112.

109. EQUES ACUMINATUS.

a. Var. *acuminatus*.

Grammistes acuminatus Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 184, 1801.

Eques acuminatus Castelnau, Anni. Nouv. ou Rares de l'Amér. du Sud, 10, 1855. Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 280, 1860 (Cuba). Poey, Memorias, ii, 370, 1861 (Cuba); Synopsis, 325, 1868 (Cuba). Cope, Ichthyol. Lesser Antilles, 471, 1870 (St. Croix). Poey, Enumeratio, 49, 1875 (Cuba). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

Pareques acuminatus Goode, Bull. U. S. Nat. Mus., v, 50, 1876 (Bermudas). Bean, Internat. Fish. Exhib. Berlin, 54, 1883 (Key West).

Eques lineatus Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 1830, 169 (Brazil).

b. Var. *umbrosus*.

Sciæna acuminata Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 573, 1883 (Pensacola).

Eques acuminatus umbrosus Jordan & Eigenmann, var. nov. (Charleston; Pensacola).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna, South Carolina to Brazil; var. *umbrosus* on the United States coast.

This species is not uncommon in the West Indies. In several respects it differs widely from the type of the genus *Eques*, in all these respects approaching the type of the genus *Sciæna*. It however seems impossible to regard *Pareques* as a genus distinct from *Eques*, as in several

regards *Eques punctatus* is intermediate between *Eques acuminatus* and *Eques lanceolatus*.

A third species of the subgenus *Pareques* was obtained by Professor Gilbert at Panama, but the types were destroyed by fire before a description could be published.

Northern specimens of this species (Charleston, Pensacola, Key West) are much more plainly colored than the ordinary West Indian form. We propose for such the varietal name of *Eques acuminatus umbrosus*, taking as our type a specimen from Charleston sent us by Mr. Charles C. Leslie.

Of the ordinary striped form we have examined specimens in the museum at Cambridge from Rio Janeiro, Porto Rico, St. Thomas, and Sombrero. Our description of var. *acuminatus* is especially drawn from No. 563, M. C. Z., from the island of Sombrero.

110. EQUES PUNCTATUS.

(SERRANA.)

Serrana hispanis Parra, Piezas de Hist. Nat. de Cuba, 2, plate 2, lower figure, 1787 (Cuba).

Eques punctatus Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 106, 1801 (based on Parra, 2, plate 2, fig. 2). Desmarest, Première Décade Ichthyol., 40, plate iii, fig. 2, 1823 (Cuba). Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v, 167, plate 116, 1830 (Cuba, Martinique). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 322, 1846 (copied). Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 281, 1860 (Jamaica). Poey, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 173 (Parra, plate 2, lower figure). Poey, Synopsis, 325, 1868 (Cuba). Cope, Ichthyol. Lesser Antilles, 471, 1870 (St. Croix). Poey, Enumeratio, 49, 1875 (Cuba). Jordan, Proc. U. S. Nat. Mus., 1886, 43 (Cuba).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna.

This handsomely colored species is not uncommon in the West Indies, The specimen here described was obtained by Dr. Jordan at Havana. Others are in the museum at Cambridge, from Cuba and from Jérémie. Hayti.

111. EQUES PULCHER.

Eques pulcher Steindachner, Ichth. Notizen, vi, 43, 1867 (Barbadoes).

Habitat.—West Indian fauna; Barbadoes.

This species is known from Steindachner's description only.

112. EQUES LANCEOLATUS.

(SERRANA.)

Guapena, Edwards, "Gleanings, plate 210" ("Caraibes islands").

Chætodon lanceolatus Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. x, 277, 1758 (based on Edwards, plate 210). Linnæus, Syst. Nat., ed. xii, 466, 1766. Gmelin, Syst. Nat., 1254, 1788 (copied).

Sciæna lanceolata Castelnau, Anim. Nouv. ou Rares de l'Amér. du Sud, 10, 1855.

Eques lanceolatus Günther, Cat. Fish. Brit. Mus., ii, 279, 1860 (West Indies). Poey, Enumeratio, 49, 1875 (Cuba). Poey, Synopsis, 325, 1868 (Cuba). Poey, Proc. Acad. Nat. Sci. Phila., 1863, 177 (Parra, plate 2). Cope, Ichth. Lesser Antilles, 471, 1870 (St. Croix; St. Martin). Jordan & Gilbert, Syn. Fish. North Am., 932, 1883 (Pensacola). Jordan, Cat. Fish. North America, 94, 1885 (name only).

- Serrana Parra*, Piezas de Hist. Nat. de Cuba, plate 2, upper figure, 1787. (Cuba).
Eques americanus Bloch, Ichthyol., plate 317, 1793. Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 105, 1801.
Eques punctatus var. Bloch & Schneider, Syst. Ichth., 106, 1801 (based on Parra, plate 2, fig. 1).
Eques balteatus Cuvier, Règne Animal, plate 29, fig. 2, 1829. Cuv. & Val., Hist. Nat. Poiss., v. 165, 1830 (Martinique). Storer, Syn. Fish. North Am., 322, 1846 (copied).
Sciæna edwardi Gronow, Cat. Fish., ed. Gray, 53, 1854.

Habitat.—West Indian fauna, ranging northward to Pensacola.

This interesting fish is widely distributed in the West Indian waters. The specimen described by us is in the National Museum, having been taken near Pensacola.

RECAPITULATION.

The following is a list of the species of *Sciænidæ* recognized by us as occurring in the waters of America and Europe. The distribution in general of each species is indicated by the use of the following letters:

- E. Europe.
- N. Atlantic coast, north of Cape Hatteras.
- S. South Atlantic and Gulf coast.
- W. West Indies.
- C. California.
- P. Pacific coast of Mexico and Central America.
- F. Rivers of North America.
- B. Coasts of Brazil.
- A. Rivers of South America (Amazon).
- V. Pacific coast of South America.

Subfamily I.—OTOLITHINÆ.

1. *Seriphis* Ayres.
 1. *Seriphis polltus* Ayres. C.
2. *Archoscion* Gill.

§ *Isopisthus* Gill.

 2. *Archoscion remifer* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
 3. *Archoscion parvipinnis* (Cuv. & Val.). W., B.
§ *Archoscion*.
 4. *Archoscion analis* (Jenyns). V.
3. *Cestreus* Gronow. (To be called *Cynoscion*, if *Cestreus* be regarded as preoccupied by *Cestræus*.)
 5. *Cestreus prædatorius* Jordan & Gilbert. P.
 6. *Cestreus acoupa* (Lacépède). B.
 7. *Cestreus squamipinnis* (Günther). P.
 8. *Cestreus othonopterus* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
 9. *Cestreus striatus* (Cuvier). B.
 10. *Cestreus obliquatus* (Valenciennes). W. (Doubtful species; unknown to us.)
 11. *Cestreus nothus* (Holbrook). S.
 12. *Cestreus regalis* (Bloch & Schneider). N., S.
 - 12 (b). — — — *thalassinus* (Holbrook). S.
 13. *Cestreus reticulatus* (Günther). P.
 14. *Cestreus nebulosus* (Cuv. & Val.). S.
 15. *Cestreus parvipinnis* (Ayres). C.

16. *Cestreus xanthulum* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
17. *Cestreus albus* (Günther). P.
18. *Cestreus stolzmanni* (Steindachner). P.
19. *Cestreus nobilis* (Ayres). C.
20. *Cestreus phoxocephalus* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
21. *Cestreus leiarchus* (Cuv. & Val.). W., B.
22. *Cestreus virescens* (Cuv. & Val.). B.
23. *Cestreus microlepidotus* (Cuv. & Val.). B.
24. *Cestreus steindachneri* Jordan. B.
25. *Cestreus bairdi* (Steindachner). B.

4 Aencylodon Cuvier.

26. *Aencylodon aencylodon* (Bloch & Schneider). B., P.

Subfamily II.—SCLÆNINÆ.

5. Nebris Cuv. & Val.

27. *Nebris microps* Cuv. & Val. B., P.

6. Larimus Cuv. & Val.

28. *Larimus argenteus* (Gill). P.
29. *Larimus breviceps* (Cuv. & Val.). W., B., P. (Perhaps more than one species included in the synonymy.)
30. *Larimus stahli* (Poey). W.
31. *Larimus fasciatus* Holbrook. S.

7. Odontoscion Gill.

32. *Odontoscion dentex* (Cuv. & Val.). W.

8. Corvula Jordan & Eigenmann.

33. *Corvula macrops* (Steindachner). P.
34. *Corvula sialis* Jordan & Eigenmann. S.
35. *Corvula subequalis* (Poey). W.
36. *Corvula batabana* (Poey). W.

9. Plagioscion Gill.

37. *Plagioscion squamosissimus* (Heckel). A.
38. *Plagioscion surinamensis* (Bleeker). A.
39. *Plagioscion auratus* (Castelnau). A.

10. Bairdiella Gill.

40. *Bairdiella archidium* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
41. *Bairdiella chrysura* (Lacépède). S.
42. *Bairdiella ensifera* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
43. *Bairdiella icistia* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
44. *Bairdiella ronchus* (Cuv. & Val.). W., B.
45. *Bairdiella armata* Gill. P., W., B.
46. *Bairdiella aluta* (Jordan & Gilbert). P. (Doubtful species.)
47. *Bairdiella chrysolenza* (Günther). P.

11. Stelliferus Stark.

48. *Stelliferus oscitans* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
49. *Stelliferus rastrifer* Jordan. B.
50. *Stelliferus fürthi* (Steindachner). P.
51. *Stelliferus minor* (Tschudi). V.
52. *Stelliferus stellifer* (Bloch). B.
53. *Stelliferus lanceolatus* (Holbrook). S.
54. *Stelliferus ericymba* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
55. *Stelliferus naso* Jordan. B.
56. *Stelliferus microps* (Steindachner). B.

12. Sciæna (Artedi) Linnaeus.§ *Ophioscion* Gill.

57. *Sciæna gilli* (Steindachner). B.
 58. *Sciæna adusta* Agassiz. B., W.
 59. *Sciæna typica* (Gill). P. (*Nomen ineptum*; perhaps to be called *Sciæna ophioscion*.)
 60. *Sciæna imicrops* (Jordan & Gilbert). P.
 61. *Sciæna seiera* Jordan & Gilbert. P.
 62. *Sciæna vermicularis* Günther. P.
 § *Scianops* Gill.
 63. *Sciæna ocellata* Linnaeus. S.
 § *Johnius* Bloch.
 64. *Sciæna heterolepis* Bleeker. B. (Species unknown to us.)
 § *Pseudosciæna* Bleeker.
 65. *Sciæna aquila* (Lacépède). E. (Perhaps to be called *Sciæna hololepidota*.)
 § *Callanus* Jordan.
 66. *Sciæna deliciosa* Tschudi. V.
 § *Sciæna* (= *Corvina* Cuvier).
 67. *Sciæna umbra* Linnaeus. E.
 § *Cheilotrema* Tschudi.
 68. *Sciæna saturna* (Girard). C.
 69. *Sciæna fasciata* (Tschudi). V.

13. Roncador Jordan & Gilbert.

70. *Roncador stearnsi* (Steindachner). C.

14. Leiostomus Lacépède.

71. *Leiostomus xanthurus* Lacépède. S. (W.?)

15. Pachyurus Agassiz.§ *Pachyurus*.

72. *Pachyurus squamipinnis* Agassiz. A.
 § *Lepipterus* Cuv. & Val.
 73. *Pachyurus francisci* (Cuv. & Val.). A.
 74. *Pachyurus bonariensis* Steindachner. A.
 75. *Pachyurus schomburgki* Günther. A.

16. Pachypops Gill. (Perhaps a subgenus under *Pachyurus*.)

76. *Pachypops furcatus* (Lacépède). A.
 77. *Pachypops trifilis* (Müller & Troschel). A.
 78. *Pachypops adspersus* (Steindachner). A. (Perhaps to be called *P. grunniens*.)

17. Polycirrus Bocourt.

79. *Polycirrus dumerili* Bocourt. P.
 80. *Polycirrus brasiliensis* (Steindachner). B.
 81. *Polycirrus peruanus* (Steindachner). V.

18. Genyonemus Gill.

82. *Genyonemus lineatus* (Ayres). C.

19. Micropogon Cuvier & Valenciennes.

83. *Micropogon undulatus* (Linnaeus). S.
 84. *Micropogon furnieri* (Desmarest). W., B.
 85. *Micropogon ectenes* Jordan & Gilbert. P.
 86. *Micropogon altipinnis* Günther. P.

20. Umbrina Cuvier.

87. *Umbrina cirrosa* (Linnaeus). E.
88. *Umbrina reedi* Giüther. V.
89. *Umbrina broussoneti* Cuv. & Val. S., W., B.
90. *Umbrina roncador* Jordan & Gilbert. C.
91. *Umbrina xanti* Gill. P.
92. *Umbrina galapagorum* Steindachner. V.
93. *Umbrina dorsalis* Gill. P.

21. Menticirrhus Gill.

- § *Cirrimens* Gill.
94. *Menticirrhus ophicephalus* (Jenyns). V.
- § *Menticirrhus*.
95. *Menticirrhus simus* Jordan & Eigenmann. P.
 96. *Menticirrhus nasus* (Günther). P.
 97. *Menticirrhus agassizi* Jordan. V.
 98. *Menticirrhus panamensis* (Steindachner). P.
 99. *Menticirrhus martinicensis* (Cuv. & Val.). W., B. (Doubtful species; probably a variety of the next.)
 100. *Menticirrhus americanus* (Linnaeus). S.
 101. *Menticirrhus saxatilis* (Bloch & Schneider). N., S.
 102. *Menticirrhus undulatus* (Girard). C.
- § *Umbrula* Jordan & Eigenmann.
103. *Menticirrhus elongatus* (Günther). P.
 104. *Menticirrhus littoralis* (Holbrook). S.

22. Paralonchurus Bocourt.

105. *Paralonchurus petersi* Bocourt. P.

23. Lonchurus Bloch.

106. *Lonchurus lanceolatus* (Bloch). B.

24. Pogonias Lacépède.

107. *Pogonias cromis* (Linnaeus). S.
- 107(b). — — — *courbina* (Lacépède). B.

25. Aplodinotus Rafinesque.

108. *Aplodinotus grunniens* Rafinesque. F.

26. Eques Bloch.

§ *Pareques* Gill.

109. *Eques acuminatus* (Bloch & Schneider). W.
 - 109(b). — — — *umbrosus* Jordan & Eigenmann. S,
 110. *Eques punctatus* (Bloch & Schneider). W.
 111. *Eques pulcher* (Steindachner). W.
- § *Eques*.
112. *Eques lanceolatus* (Linnaeus). W., S.

INDIANA UNIVERSITY,

Bloomington, Ind., July 25, 1887.

Note on Cestreus and Cynoscion.

The generic name *Cynoscion* Gill must be used instead of *Cestreus* for the Weak-fishes. Professor Gill calls my attention to the prior use of *Cestreus* by McClelland (*Journ. Nat. Hist.*, v. 2, p. 151) in 1842, for a genus of gobies (= *Prionobutis* Bleeker). The type, *Cestreus minimus* McClelland = *Eleotris amboinensis* Day. For the Sciænid genus, *Cestreus* (1854), must give place to *Cynoscion*.

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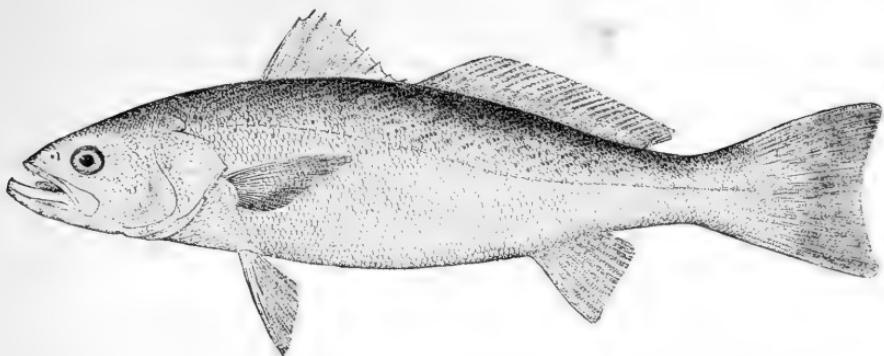


FIG. 1.—*CYNOSCIUS REGALE* (Bloch & Schneider). The Weak-fish, or Squeteague.
(No. 10421, U. S. N. M., from Wood's Holl, Massachusetts.)

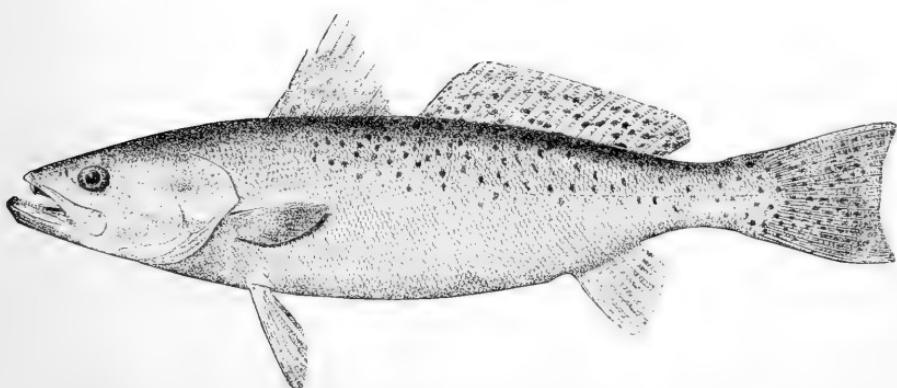


FIG. 2.—*CYNOSCIUS NEBULOSUM* (Cuvier & Valenciennes). The Spotted Weak-fish.
(No. 15000, U. S. N. M., from Norfolk, Virginia.)

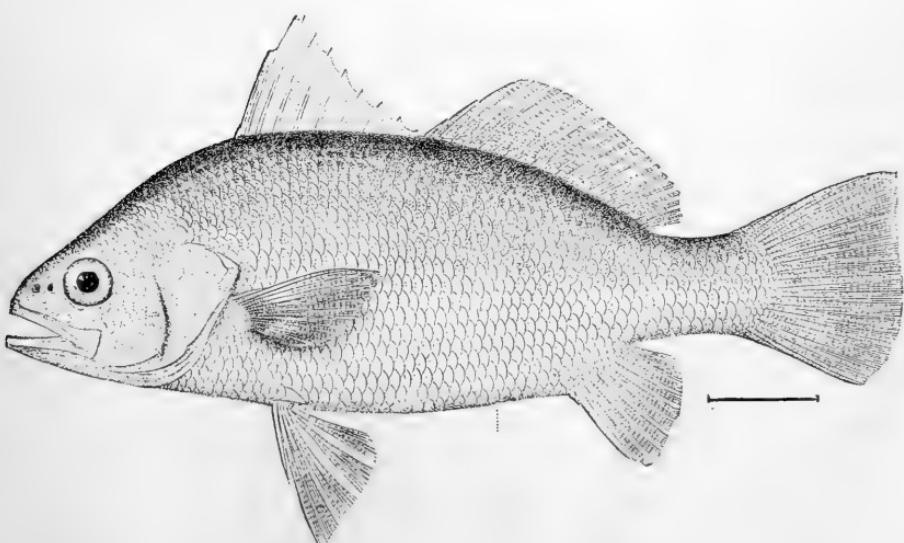


FIG. 3.—*BAIRDIELLA CHRYSURA* (Lacépède). The Mademoiselle, or Yellow-tail.
(No. 771, U. S. N. M., from Beesley's Point, New Jersey.)

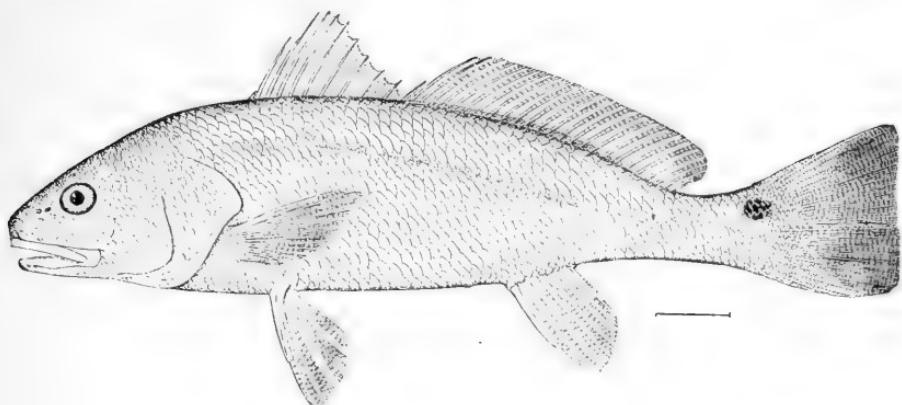


FIG. 4.—*SCIÆNA OCCELLATA* Linnæus. The Red Drum, or Channel Bass.
(No. 622, U. S. N. M., from Indianola, Texas.)

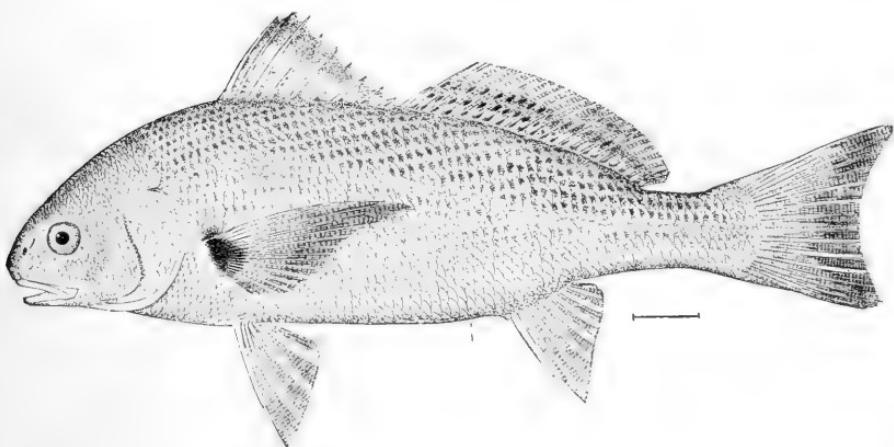


FIG. 5.—*RONCADOR STEARNSI* (Steindachner). The Roncador.
(No. 26864, U. S. N. M., from Santa Barbara, California.)

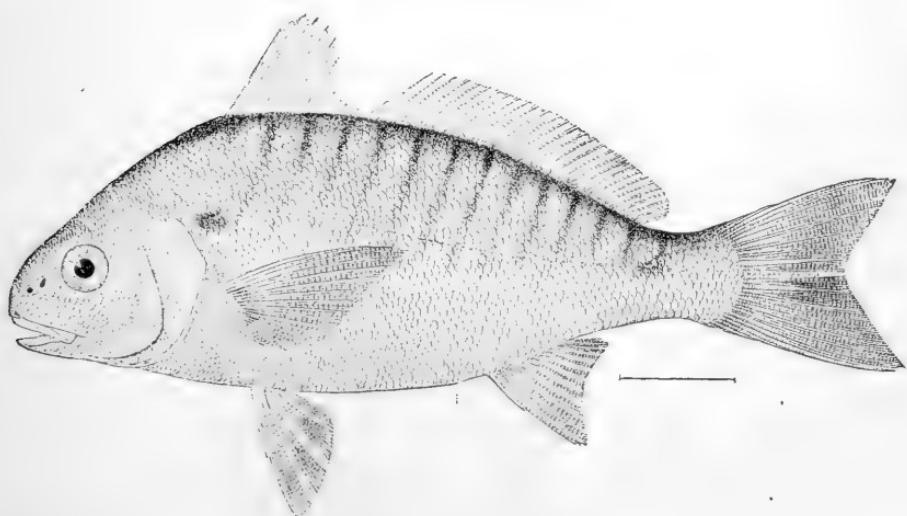


FIG. 6.—*LEIOSTOMUS XANTHURUS* Lacépède. The Spot.
(No. 20222, U. S. N. M., from Newport, Rhode Island.)

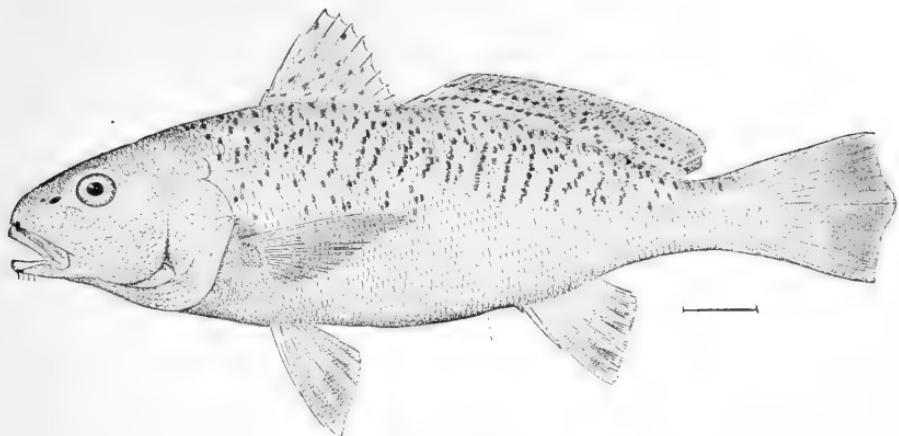


FIG. 7.—*MICROPOGON UNDULATUS* (Linnaeus). The Croaker.
(No. 20742, U. S. N. M., from Newport, Rhode Island.)

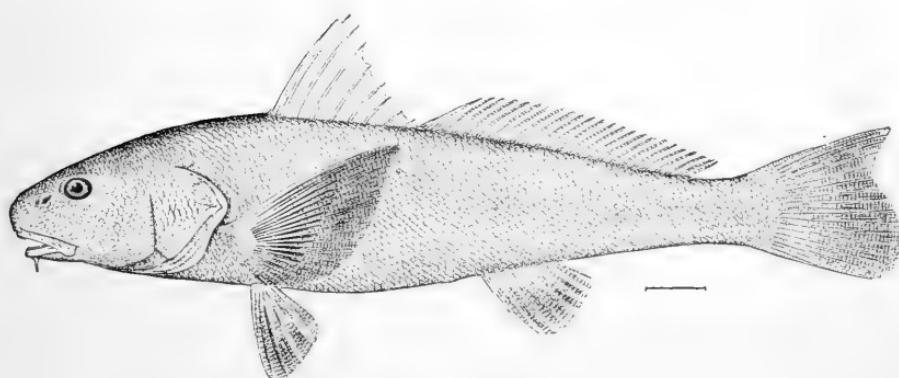


FIG. 8.—*MENTICIRRUS AMERICANUS* (Linnaeus). The Carolina Whiting.
(No. 22832, U. S. N. M., from Pensacola, Florida.)

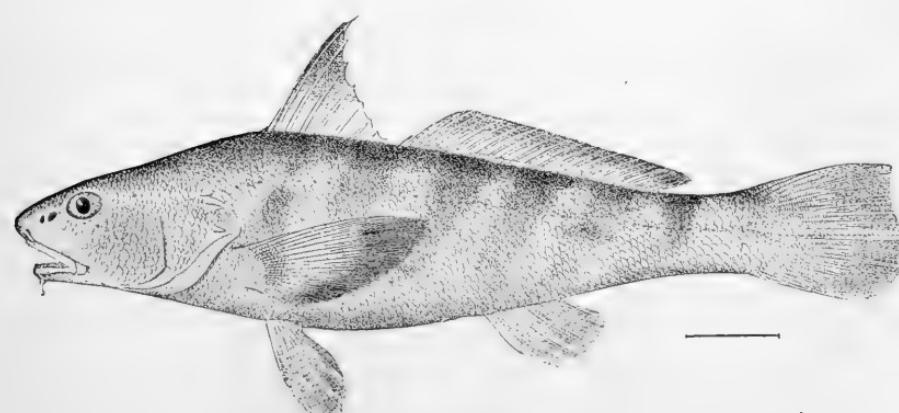
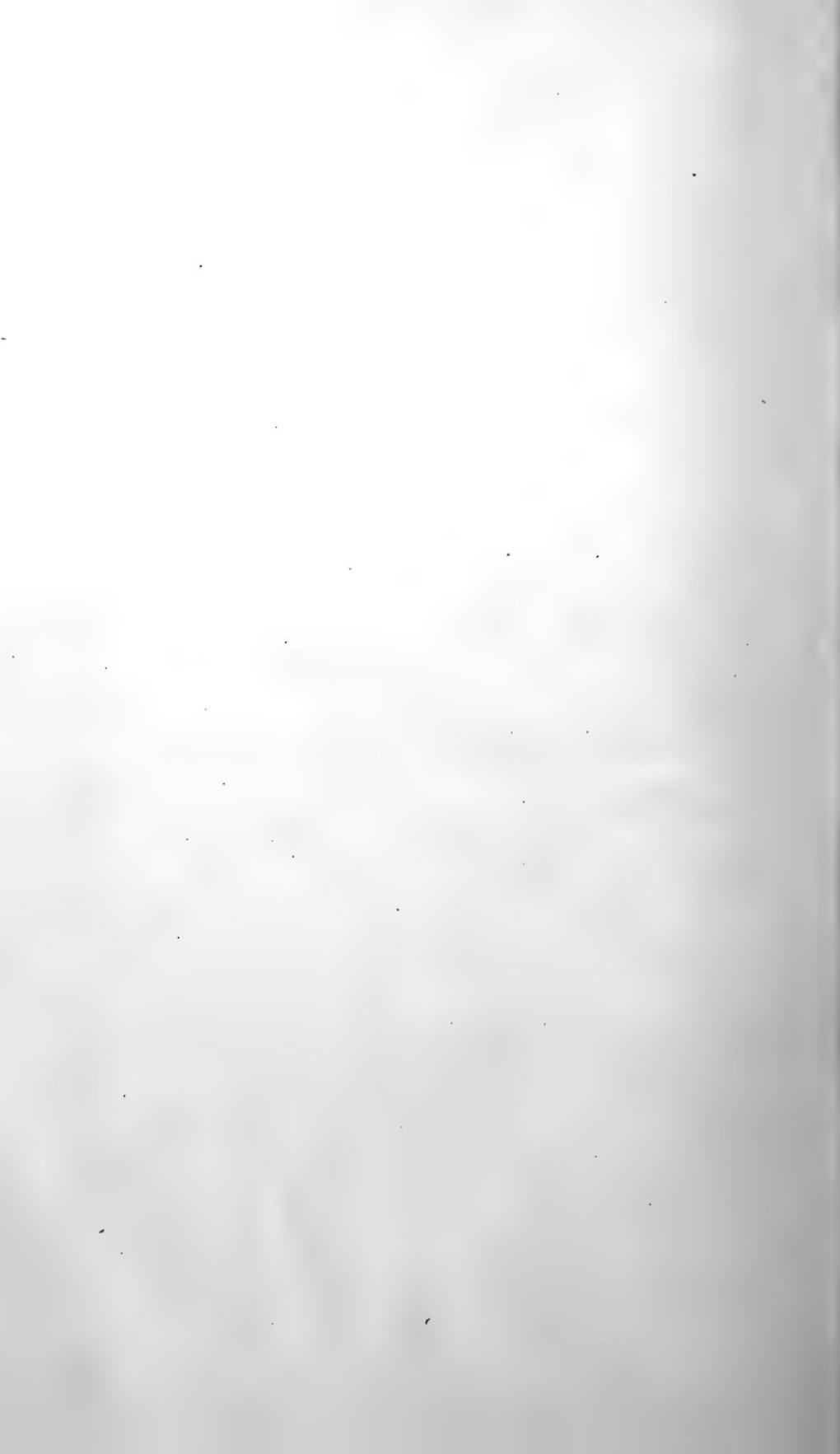


FIG. 9.—*MENTICIRRUS SAXATILIS* (Bloch & Schneider). The King-fish.
(No. 25403, U. S. N. M., from Charleston, South Carolina.)



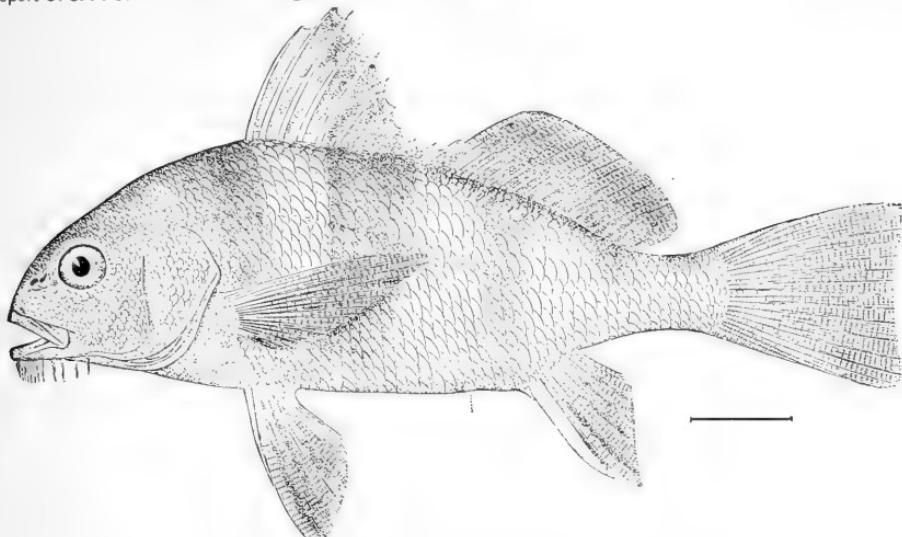


FIG. 10.—*POGONIAS CROMIS* Linnæus. The Drum (young).
(No. 18036, U. S. N. M., from Matanzas River Inlet, Florida.)

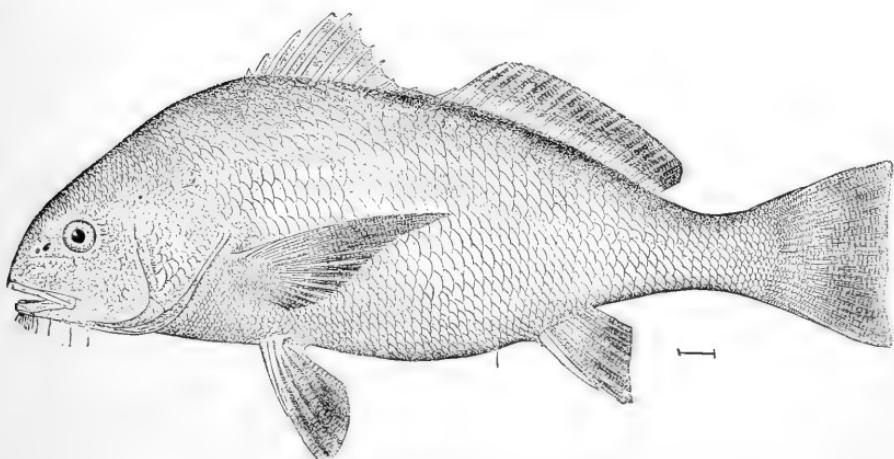


FIG. 11.—*POGONIAS CROMIS* Linnæus. The Drum (adult).
(No. 22936, U. S. N. M.)

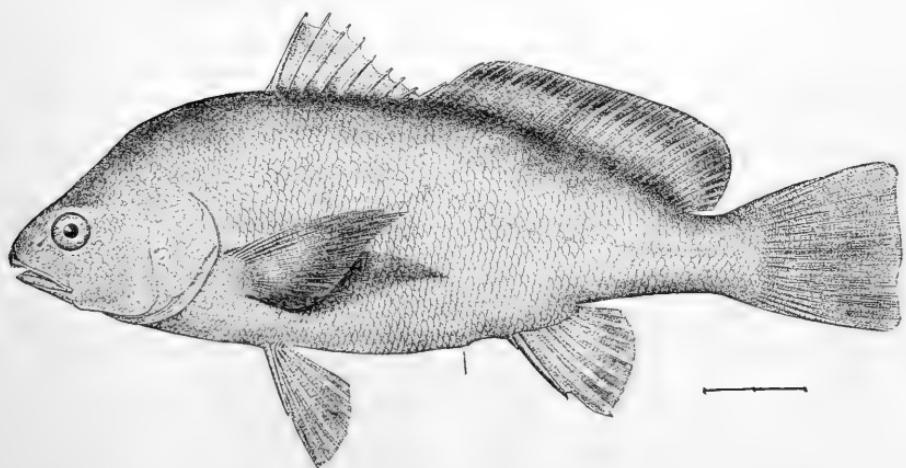


FIG. 12.—*APLODONOTUS GRUNNIENS* Rafinesque. The Fresh-water Drum, or Gaspergou.
(No. 10542, U. S. N. M., from Ecorse, Michigan.)

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IV.—NOTES ON ENTOZOA OF MARINE FISHES OF NEW ENGLAND, WITH DESCRIPTIONS OF SEVERAL NEW SPECIES.

BY EDWIN LINTON.

In the summers of 1884-'85 I collected Entozoa from several of the commoner species of food-fishes and Selachians at the summer station of the U. S. Fish Commission, Wood's Holl, Mass.

Cestoid entozoa in the adult or strobile condition were found in great numbers in the alimentary tracts of all the Selachians examined. Encysted forms of the *Cestoidea* are for the most part confined to the *Teleostei* and are found in greatest abundance in the submucous coat of the stomach and intestine, although not infrequently met with in the peritoneum, liver, spleen, ovaries, &c. In every specimen of such fishes, as the Bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*), Squteague (*Cynoscion regale*), Striped Bass (*Roccus lineatus*), &c., examined, the walls of the alimentary tract were spotted thickly with minute cysts, which, when opened, were found to contain larvæ of some Cestods, most of them of the genus *Rhynchobothrium*. Some from the submucous coat of the Squteague (*C. regale*) seem to be larvæ of the species which I have named *R. bisulcatum*.

In the gall-bladder of nearly every specimen of Squteague (*Cynoscion regale*) that I have examined, I found hundreds of larval *Tetrabothria*. They are usually attached to the walls of the cystic duct in clusters of such size as to obstruct the passage. (Plate VI, Figs. 6 and 7.) They are easily dislodged and often may be seen in vast numbers in the amber-colored contents of the gall-bladder. These larvæ, when placed in sea-water, are quite active. Each moves by alternately thrusting forward a pair of bothria and by alternate contraction and extension of the body. While this is in progress the body is constantly changing its form. At times it is long and filiform, at others short and broad. At rest it is commonly thickened or obtuse in front, tapering posteriorly. The body of the larva consists of a thin limiting membrane about 0.05^{mm} thick, inside of which is a granular parenchyma, the latter a clear fluid filled with highly refractile globular masses averaging 0.01^{mm} in diameter. The bothria are four in number, without hooks, and in the majority of those examined, without costæ. In some specimens there seems to be the beginning of an auxiliary acetabulum at the apex of each bothrium.

The apex of the head, at times obtuse or even retuse, is frequently elevated into a terminal papilla, disclosing a conical proboscis and terminal os like that of *Echeneibothrium*. The entire head is sometimes invaginated. The length is difficult to determine, on account of the extreme variability of form, but the average length when at rest is not far from 2.5^{mm}. When placed in fresh water they are apt to assume a filiform shape, with a length of from 4 to 6^{mm}. When disturbed they contract to 1.5^{mm} or less. Many of these larvae have two small red blotches immediately behind the bothria. A water vascular system can be distinguished in most of them. This consists of a convoluted tube on each margin, becoming evidently double near the head and forming a loop in front of the bothria and giving off branches to the bothria. Larvæ resembling those from the gall-bladder, but smaller, were also found in the intestine of the Squeteague (*Cynoscion regale*) and of the Angler (*Lophius piscatorius*). These, wherever noticed, were in myriads, floating free in the chyle. (Plate VI, Figs. 8 and 9.)

Elongated cysts were found in the liver, or peritoneum, of most of the Teleostei that were examined. These when opened set free an endocyst which is contractile and has the power of locomotion to some extent. When subjected to the action of the compressor, lateral vessels can be discerned which are evidently parts of a water vascular system. When one of these endocysts (*blastocysts* Diesing), that is sufficiently developed, is opened, it will be found that an embryo has been developed within. In some, this embryo seems to be free in the parenchyma, and when the wall of the blastocyst is ruptured, it is at once freed from its living envelope. The development in this case seems to be analogous to the development of *Cercariae* in a Sporocyst.

In other cases the neck of the embryo is protruded from the side of the blastocyst in the form of a loop. When further pressure is applied the head is released, while the blastocyst remains attached to the scolex much like the bladder of a *Cystocercus*. The embryo, however, it will be observed, is not released by evagination, as in *Tenia*.

Nematods were found in most of the fish that were examined, both free in the alimentary canal and encapsulated in the peritoneum, gastric caeca, liver, &c. They were found in the greatest numbers in the peritoneum of the Angler (*Lophius piscatorius*), from a single specimen of which hundreds of the Nematoid, *Agamoneema capsularia* Dies., were obtained.

Several Trematods were met with, most of them free in the stomach of their host, but not so abundant as either the *Cestoidea*, *Nematoidea*, or *Acanthocephala*. These will be described in a subsequent paper.

The only fishes that were found comparatively free from intestinal parasites were the Sea-Robins (*Prionotus*), while a Sturgeon (*Acipenser sturio*) yielded but one specimen, a Nematod from the alimentary canal, and a few Trematods from the gills.

In the descriptive part of this paper I have confined my attention to the *Cestoidea* and the *Acanthocephala*, and with two exceptions, viz, *Dibothrium aluterae* and *Echinorhynchus sagittifer*, to adult forms.

In the determination of genera I have been guided principally by Diesing's Revisions. Accepting the characters there enumerated, I have been compelled to create three new generic names, viz: *Spongiobothrium*, *Crossobothrium*, and *Phoreciobothrium*.

For the determination of species I have made use of the publications of Rudolphi, Diesing, P. J. Van Beneden, Dujardin, Von Linstow, Wagener, Krabbe, Olsson, Eschricht, Leuckart, Küchenmeister, Zürn, Von Siebold, Leidy, Cobbold, and others.

Systematic work on the Entozoa is attended with much difficulty on account of the confusion in which the earlier literature is involved. In this connection I take the liberty of quoting a brief passage from Von Linstow's "Compendium der Helminthologie," Hannover, 1878:

"The number of well-founded species is indeed not quite so great as the list indicates, for a host of older names, especially originating with Rudolphi, figure in it, of which typical examples are no longer in existence, and which have been described imperfectly or not at all, so that they must remain forever an unsolved riddle. For example, many rudiments of *Tæniae* discovered by this author, whose enumeration has been of not the least advantage to science, and many descriptions of older date have not since been recognized. One comes from their contemplation often in great perplexity of mind, and does not really know how they ought to be represented. Moreover, to make the entire literature effective was impossible, since too many species are described in such a way that it is not possible to recognize them again, and other specifications are so improbable that for this reason they must remain unconsidered; * * * when further the description of a new species is disposed of with an enumeration of the length and breadth, when, finally, for new species only the place where they are found is given, together with or without an accompanying description, as is to be found in many works, then I think I am not at fault in citing such publications only in limited amount."

It has been my endeavor to give as full a description of each species considered as the material at hand would justify. When only alcoholic specimens were accessible I have mentioned the fact in the proper place.

As the development of many of the *Cestoidea* seems to be quite different, even in closely related forms, it is very important that the systematic work which is done on them be so done as to leave no doubt in the mind of the investigator what species is being described, whether the name adopted for it holds or not. Appreciating the value of figures in establishing the identity of species, I have therefore not included in this paper descriptions of any forms unless accompanied with sufficient figures to make future identification reasonably certain.

In giving the specific names of fishes mentioned in this paper, I have used the nomenclature adopted by Prof. George Brown Goode in "The Fisheries and Fishery Industries of the United States, Section I." Washington, 1884.

The illustrations which accompany this paper are the work of my wife, Margaret B. Linton.

ORDER CESTOIDEA.

Family DIBOTHRIIDÆ Diesing.

DIBOTHRIUM Rudolphi.

Tænia spec. of Authors.

Rhytelminthus, *Rhytis*, *Alyselmanthus*, and *Helsys* Zeder.

Bothrioccephalus (*Dibothrius*) Rudolphi.

Diphyllobothrium Cobbold.

Dibothrium Diesing.

Dibothrium manubriforme, sp. nov.

[Plate I, Figs. 1-4.]

Head cuneate, tetrangular, truncate in front, tapering posteriorly, constricted into a cylindrical neck-like part near posterior, then expanding so that the posterior end of the head resembles one of the anterior segments of the body. The general appearance of the head when viewed laterally is therefore somewhat like a ball-bat, the constricted part representing the handle. Two longitudinal fossæ (bothria), laterally placed, extend from the anterior part of the head to the constricted part. Each of the marginal lobes thus formed is indented at the anterior extremity by a short but deep secondary fossa, which, together with the two lateral fossæ, give the head when viewed in front a four-lobed appearance. The edges of the lobes bordering the lateral fossæ are thin-lipped and flexible; anteriorly there is a transverse elevation forming both a lateral and a marginal rim and making an obtuse angle between the front and the side of the head. The marginal lobes, when at rest, have a rounded outline, fullest in the middle, tapering posteriorly, appressed slightly anteriorly, and raised into two small eminences on each side of the secondary fossæ. The head in a marginal view is somewhat flask-shaped. Seen from the front the head is squarish, with the angles rounded and the sides deeply cleft, the clefts rounded, the lateral clefts deeper than the marginal. Immediately back of the head the segments are very narrow, and for a greater or less distance, depending on the state of contraction, maintain about the same width as the base of the head. In some individuals the small anterior segments continue much farther back from the head than in the one figured (Plate I, Fig. 1). The segments are alternately short and long. This characteristic is quite plainly marked in those segments which immediately follow the

head, is still noticeable on the median segments and also on the posterior ones, but is not so plainly marked on the latter as on the two former. In one specimen examined the first six segments did not show this alternation in size. In the next fourteen segments, however, the alternation was quite evident. The small anterior segments are terete, subtriangular in outline, narrow in front, wide behind, the length nearly equal to the greatest breadth. The succeeding segments are much broader than long. At the widest part the ratio of the breadth to the length is as much as fourteen to one. As the segments increase in width they become much crowded together and thickened. In one specimen, measuring 140^{mm}, the segments increased in width uniformly for about 100^{mm} from the head; from that point they remained about the same size until near the posterior end, where they began to be elongated and at the same time became narrower and much thinner. The crowding together of the median segments is not due to contraction, but seems to be a permanent characteristic of the species. In some very young specimens the same character was observed. The general form of these worms, both young and adult, was persistent. Although kept for some time in water they were not observed to change their form in any essential particular from that given in the sketches.

In alcoholic specimens a dark median line will be noticed extending from the posterior end to the middle or anterior third of the strobile. This is due to the centrally situated ovaries, which are crowded with eggs. The genital apertures are lateral and may be traced in an irregular zigzag line on one side from about the anterior third of the body. In the mature segments they are rendered obscure, if not wholly obliterated, by the mass of eggs with which the center of the segment is filled. The eggs are white, opaque, oval; length, .045^{mm}; breadth, .03^{mm}. Associated with these perfect eggs are masses of others which become transparent when treated with oil of cloves or other strongly refracting media. These seem to be imperfect eggs which have not become invested with the thick hard shell which covers the perfect eggs.

An adult specimen gives the following measurements:

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile	133.00
Length of first series of segments	17.00
Length of head	3.50
Breadth of head in front, widest part	1.00
Average length of segments in first series	0.50
Breadth of widest segments, median	6.50
Length of widest segments, median	0.25-
Length of posterior, mature segments	1.00
Breadth of posterior, mature segments	2.50

In another specimen the head and first segments give the following measurements:

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile	140.00
Length of head and first series of segments	30.00
Length of head	3.00

	Millimeters.
Breadth of head in front, widest part.....	0.90
Breadth of head just behind the front rim.....	0.80
Breadth of marginal lobe, about the middle.....	0.90
Breadth of head, narrowest part.....	0.21
Breadth of first segment, widest (posterior) part.....	0.80
Breadth of first segment, narrowest (anterior) part	0.42
Length of longer alternate segments, first series	0.40
Length of shorter alternate segments, first series.....	0.24

The segments of the first series are sometimes notched or crenulated on the postero-lateral margin, with a single median indentation; in others the edge is but slightly waving; in others it is nearly entire.

The following measurements are from a young specimen:

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile.....	20.00
Length of head.....	2.10
Breadth of head, anterior.....	0.80
Breadth of head just back of anterior rim.....	0.60
Breadth of head, narrowest (constricted) part.....	0.31
Breadth of first segments, widest (posterior) part	0.50
Breadth of first segments, narrowest (anterior) part.....	0.28
Average length of segments, longer alternates	0.35
Average length of segments, shorter alternates.....	0.24
Breadth of widest segments.....	0.90
Average length of widest segments	0.12
Width of posterior segments.....	0.35
Length of posterior segments.....	0.36

Habitat.—Both young and adult, one specimen of the former and six of the latter, were taken from the intestine of a spear-fish (*Tetrapturus albidus* Poey), August 8, 1885, at Wood's Holl, Mass.

Dibothrium alutera, sp. nov.

[Plate I, Figs. 5-8.]

Near *Dibothrium microcephalum* Rudolphi, Diesing, Systema Helminth., i, 592.

Ibid., Sitzungsbs., xiii, 578, Revis. Ceph., Par. 241. Wagener, Nov. Act.

Nat. Cur., xxiv, Suppl., 16, 69, tab. vii, 77. Van Beneden, in Bullet.

Acad. Belgique, xxii, ii, 521.

Bothrioccephalus microcephalus Bellingham, Ann. Nat. Hist., xiv, 253. (Habitat, *Orthagoriscus mola*.)

Head subsagittate with rounded apex; bothria oblong, lateral; neck, none; first joints distinct, about as long as wide, becoming much shorter and crowded together, much wider than long; genital apertures unknown.

Habitat.—File Fish (*Alutera Schæffii*), Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1884; 104 specimens from intestines of a single fish.

These specimens were all immature, none of them had the genital apertures developed. They ranged in length from 20^{mm} to 94^{mm}. The bothria in the smaller specimens are convex (Fig. 5), the central convex portions thin and transparent. A lateral view shows the bothria

to be much narrower than the first joint, with curved regular outlines, except at the posterior edge, where there is a shallow notch. The front of the head is bluntly conical, expanding quickly, then moderately contracted, making a kind of knob or button at the apex; this knob is nearly circular. Measurements showed that the lateral diameter was but little greater than the marginal. In the larger specimens this convexity of the bothria had entirely disappeared, the thin membrane having collapsed and the typical fossæ of the *Dibothriæ* make their appearance. In the larger specimens, also, the bothria are much shorter in proportion to their width than in the smaller specimens (Fig. 7). The first segments are distinct, length as great or even greater than the width, triangular. The median and posterior segments are much crowded, width as much as or even more than ten times the length, alternately long and short, sometimes roughened by transverse wrinkles toward the posterior end. Posterior end bluntly rounded (Fig. 8).

The following measurements are from alcoholic specimens:

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.
	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
Length of strobile	55.00	67.00	94.00
Length of head	0.60	0.64	0.64
Diameter of head, lateral apex	0.34	0.25	0.33	0.34
Diameter of head, marginal apex	0.30	0.25	0.33	0.34
Breadth of bothrium, widest part	0.42	0.40	0.52	0.54
Greatest marginal diameter of head	0.46
Lateral diameter of first segment	0.58	0.70	0.66	0.68
Marginal diameter of first segment	0.34	0.40
Length of first segment	0.34	0.40
Greatest width of strobile	2.50	1.60	1.80
Average length of segments near posterior	0.17	0.15
Length of posterior segment	0.20
Breadth of posterior segment	1.40	0.40

It will be seen upon comparing Figs. 6 and 7 that there is great variety of form to be found in the bothria of these worms. Other forms could be given, but it is believed that those chosen for illustration are sufficiently typical to prevent mistakes in identification. In many specimens the convex outline of the bothria is lost, while the other proportions of Figs. 5 and 6 are preserved. In cases where care is not taken the preserving fluid may distort the bothria.

I did not observe any indication of the hooks on the head, mentioned by Wagener for *D. microcephalum* (*Entwickelung der Cestoden*, p. 69, tab. vii, figs. 77 and 77a). The resemblance of this worm to Wagener's figure is sufficiently close to indicate a probable identity. The close relationship of the hosts, *Orthagoriscus mola* and *Alutera Schæpfii*, does not lessen this probability.

In the absence of positive proof of such identity, which can be obtained only by observing some other stages of development, I think it best to classify this worm as a new species with the provisional name *D. alutera*.

Family TETRABOTHRIIDÆ.

ECHENEIBOTHRIUM Van Beneden.

Echeneibothrium variabile Van Beneden.

[Plate I, Figs. 9-13.]

Echeneibothrium variabile Van Beneden, Mém. Acad. Belgique, xxv, 117, tab. iii, 1-4, 6-15. G. R. Wagener, Nov. Act. Nat. Cur., xxiv, Suppl., 85, tab. xxii, 280-282. Van Beneden, Mém. Vers Intest., 122 and 366, tab. xv, 6-8. Diesing, Revis. der Ceph. Ab. Par., 267. Olsson, Lunds Univers Arssk., tom. iii, 38, 40, tab. i, 15, 16.

Tetrabothrium (Echeneibothrium) variabile Diesing, in Sitzungsbt., xiii, 1854, 581.

Larval state, Van Beneden, Mém. Acad. Belgique, xxv, tab. iii, 5. Diesing, Sitzungsbt. der kais. Akad., xiii, 1854, 562. G. R. Wagener, l. c., 85, tab. xxii, 279. Van Beneden, Mém. Vers Intest., 122, tab. xv, 5.

Bothrioccephalus spharocephalus? Deslongchamps, Eneyel. Méth., ii, 150.

Echeneibothrium spharocephalum Diesing, Revis. der Ceph. Par., 267.

The characters given for this species by Diesing, following Van Beneden, are:

Bothria four, pedicellate and highly versatile, at times linear or oval, at others cochleariform or calyciform, with a few transverse costæ, and divided into several loculi by a longitudinal partition. Muscular proboscis (myzorhynchus) large, subglobose, retractile, with a circular aperture (os) in the apex. Neck long. Anterior segments of body broader than long, median quadrate, ultimate oval. Genital apertures marginal, alternate. Penis armed with spines, scarcely bristly at base. Length as much as 100^{mm}.

In the latter part of August, 1884, I obtained several specimens of *Echeneibothria* from the spiral valve of the common Skate (*Raia erinacea*) which I have for the present referred to *E. variabile* Van Beneden. Some of the specimens possess characters which are given by Diesing as belonging to *E. spharocephalum* Dies. (Revis. der. Ceph. Par., 267). It is probable, however, that these two species are identical, as indicated by Diesing: "Species haec (*E. variabile*) cum præcedente (*E. spharocephalum*) fortasse identica."

A few sketches and measurements were made of the specimens while they were still alive, but a pressure of other duties prevented a careful study of them then. When I found time to study them carefully they had lain for some time in alcohol and many of the segments had separated. There are two distinct types of head, one represented in Fig. 9, made from the living specimen; the other represented in Fig. 13, made from an alcoholic specimen. Other alcoholic specimens are identical in form with that shown in Fig. 9. In the first mentioned the bothria are somewhat oval; pedicels moderately extended; the border of the sucking disks thickened, marked with radiating lines, and gathered or puckered into a few large folds. The proboscis is globose, re-

tractile. When the living specimen was viewed from the apex the aperture (os) could be seen surrounded by many radiating lines like the radiating muscles of the iris. In a side view of a mounted specimen a globular body about 0.2^{mm} in diameter can be seen lying in the center of the proboscis and about 0.1^{mm} from the apex. This globular mass has an aperture which lies opposite the aperture of the proboscis. It probably represents the true apex of the myzorhynchus retracted. The head behind the bothria is elongated into a neck-like part, which joins the true neck or jointless portion of the body by a definite articulation, which bears a faint resemblance to a ball-and-socket joint, in which the anterior part of the neck represents the "ball." There is also a difference in tissue, the neck having, besides longitudinal fibers, transverse fibers and many granular cells, while the neck-like portion of the head appears to be composed almost entirely of fibrous tissue arranged longitudinally.

In the other type the pedicels of the bothria are inflated and somewhat globose; the thickened border of the disk is not so much folded as in the first. The head behind the bothria is short and turgid. These differences, although striking when extreme cases are considered, are none of them so profound but that they may be accounted for by supposing them to represent different degrees of contraction. The bothria in the living worm are susceptible of great variety of form.

The segments begin from 1 to 2^{mm} back of the head. At first they are much broader than long, subsequently they become quadrate, then longer than broad. As the segments begin to mature they show a tendency to become narrowed anteriorly, with convex margins. A few of the extreme posterior segments are four times as long as broad, obtuse-pointed in front, posteriorly attenuate, with a truncate termination. The genital apertures are marginal, opening a little behind the middle. In some they are not exactly on the margin, but may be seen, in a lateral view, to be situated near the margin and running obliquely toward the center of the segment. The penis was retracted in all the specimens examined. It could be seen lying coiled up in the angle formed by the vagina where the latter turns abruptly from the middle of the segment towards the margin. The vagina could be traced from the ovaries in the posterior part of the segment along the median line until it reaches a point nearly opposite the marginal opening, where it turns abruptly towards the margin and opens immediately in front of the penis. The vas deferens is represented by a convoluted mass of tubes in the center of the segment. The anterior part of the segment is filled with large globular masses (ova). These are surrounded by a thick transparent membrane, and have a granular interior. A layer of oblong granular masses, smaller than the interior globular masses, surrounds the latter. This layer is adjacent to the marginal wall of the segment and the masses are at right angles to it.

In some specimens the median and posterior segments are very irregular in shape. This irregularity is sometimes produced by the appar-

ent occurrence of an imperfect segment of triangular shape interjected between two others which are but slightly irregular; in other cases it has the appearance of two segments, one lying diagonally across the other and the two, as it were, welded together. Measurements of the head are not satisfactory on account of the extreme contractility of that part.

The following measurements were made from a mounted specimen corresponding in position and appearance with Fig. 9:

	Millimeters.
From tip to tip of extended bothria	1.48
From apex of proboscis (retracted) to neck	0.96
Breadth of neck	0.20
Breadth of first segment	0.20
Length of first segment	0.04
Distance from head to first segment	1.40
Length of a mature segment	2.60
Breadth of a mature segment	0.60
Length of segment near posterior	1.20
Breadth of segment near posterior	0.50
Length of longest living strobile	108.00

Habitat added: Common Skate (*Raia erinacea*), spiral intestine. Wood's Holl, Mass., August 25, 1884.

SPONGIOTHIRIUM,* gen. nov.

Body articulate, tæniæform. Head separated from the body by a neck. Bothria four, opposite, pediceled, broken up into locinio-crispate folds, which are transversely costate. Unarmed; auxiliary acetabulum none; terminal papilla none. Genital apertures marginal.

This genus combines many of the characters of *Echeneibothrium* Van Beneden and *Phyllobothrium* Van Beneden. It differs from the former in the laciniae of the bothria and in the absence of a terminal haustellum; from the latter in having pediceled instead of sessile bothria, and in the transverse costæ on the bothria.

Spongiobothrium variabile, gen. et sp. nov.

[Plate II, Figs. 13-19.]

Body articulate, tæniæform. Head separated from the body by a short neck, subquadrangular, tapering posteriorly, continuing at the anterior angles into four bothria. The bothria are pediceled and on their outer faces and borders are broken up into a number of delicate frill-like laciniae, which are sometimes gathered into a more or less compact mass of crisp, puckered, or purse-like folds (Fig. 15) and sometimes expanded into long, curved, auriculate, or leaf-like flaps (Fig. 16). These are marked by transverse, parallel costæ which originate from a middle portion like the midrib of a leaf. There is no trace of either a

*Σπόγγος = a sponge or mop.

terminal papilla or auxiliary acetabulum. The neck, or unjointed part of the body, is short. In some the transverse striae, which indicate the beginning of segments, were discernible almost immediately back of the head. The first segments are usually crowded, broader than long; subsequently they increase in length and become considerably longer; than broad. In some of the ultimate segments the length is four or five times that of the breadth. The shape of the mature and nearly mature proglottides is very various.

This irregularity of shape is to be found in the living specimens as much as in those which have been preserved in alcohol. The most usual shape for the mature segments to assume is subquadrangular, somewhat contracted about the posterior third in the vicinity of the genital openings, expanding in front of this; the anterior end contracted into a short constricted neck where it joins the preceding segment. Sometimes this constriction occurs at the posterior instead of the anterior end of the segment. The ovaries are two sets of radiating tubes situated in the posterior end of the segment. The anterior half of the mature segments is crowded with globular masses (testes). These masses fill at least the anterior two-thirds of the adolescent segments. In the mature segments of all the specimens I have yet examined the center is filled with a convoluted mass, consisting of the retracted penis and the vas deferens, with perhaps the vagina and a portion of the oviduct. The extremely long and convoluted vas deferens is found protruding from the ruptured side of some of the segments which have been preserved in alcohol. This worm is remarkable for the slight change which it experiences when preserved in alcohol. Even the extremely delicate leaf-like folds of the bothria were not observed to curl up or shrivel when subjected to moderately strong alcohol. Fig. 15, Plate II, is a sketch made of a living specimen. I have since mounted the same individuals for permanent preservation. In the various processes of dehydrating with alcohol, staining with eosin, rendering transparent with oil of cloves, and afterwards mounting in Canada balsam, there has not been any shrinking or change of form, at least to any appreciable extent.

The water-vascular system is plainly indicated by two rather large tubes, which in the neck and anterior part of the body are sinuous, and each situated about as far from the other as it is from the nearest edge of the strobile. In subsequent segments they become widely separated from each other on account of the interposed ova and genital organs.

The substance of the head and pedicels of the bothria is for the most part fibrous tissue. The conical portion of the head is thus sharply marked off from the so-called neck. While the former is made up largely of fibrous tissue, the latter is granular, with but few longitudinal fibers. This feature can be easily brought out in preserved specimens by simple staining.

The following measurements were taken from mounted specimens:

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.
Length of specimen	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
Length of bothria	37.00	21.00	23.00	74.00
Breadth of head—side	0.96	0.90
Breadth of head across the top	1.35	1.60
Length of one bothrium, expanded	1.40	2.00
Breadth of neck	0.20	0.16	0.20	0.24
Distance from head to first striae	1.50	1.00
Distance from head to first distinct segment	1.80	1.40	2.00	2.60
Length of first segment	0.10	0.08	0.16	0.14
Breadth of first segment	0.20	0.26	0.24	0.32
Length of maturing segment	1.60	0.54	(*)	2.00
Breadth of maturing segment	0.32	0.24†	0.42
Length of posterior segment	0.74	0.80	1.56
Breadth of posterior segment	0.50	0.46	0.86

* Maturing segments very irregular, some long and narrow, others thick and short with rounded corners. † Variable.

Additional measurements of No. 4.

	Length.	Breadth.
Segment 4 ^{mm} from head	mm.	mm.
Segment 20 ^{mm} from head	0.20	0.32
Segment 30 ^{mm} from head	1.00	0.34
Segment 45 ^{mm} from head	1.50	0.40
Segment near posterior end	2.00	0.42
Last segment but one	2.40	0.70
Last segment	1.76	0.80
Free segment	1.56	0.86
Free segment	2.50	0.80
Free segment	3.00	0.80

Habitat.—Sting Ray (*Trygon centrura*), spiral intestine. Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1884.

PHYLLOBOTHIRIUM Van Beneden.

Phyllobothrium thysanocephalum,* sp. nov.

[Plate II, Figs. 1-12.]

In its sexually mature or strobile condition, this Cestode varies in length from 300^{mm} to 1^m. The head, as best seen in young specimens, has four bothria, which are quite early lobed and crisped and folded at the edges. In the adult these bothria are deeply lobed, so that even in a cross-section (Fig. 10) it is extremely difficult to make out the four primary lobes. The frilled, crisped, or ruffled structure of the bothria gives to the head, when at rest, a singularly striking resemblance to the short, imperfect branches which form the head in the cauliflower. The neck, or jointless part of the body, is very long. In one specimen, which measures 840^{mm} in length, the first joints appear about 360^{mm} back of the head. Immediately back of the bothria the head is slightly swollen and subcylindrical, and in alcoholic specimens nearly as wide as the bothria; in the living worm about three-fifths the width of the bothria.

* Θύσανος = a tassel.

The neck is continuous with the head, slightly flattened, and tapers away from the head very gradually in fully grown specimens, so gradually, that its progress cannot be noted, except by comparing the width of the proglottides with that of the neck. The neck is marked with longitudinal rugæ, which continue well back on the forming proglottides (Figs. 1, 2). Where the transverse striae, which mark the forming proglottides, begin, the surface of the body presents a rough, checkered appearance, due to these two systems of grooves, which is quite characteristic, and may serve to identify a fragment of one of these worms when neither head nor mature proglottis is present.

Proglottides, before they become free, are much broader than long, and each has a short, free posterior border, which becomes the rim or border mentioned in the description of the free proglottis. Penis very long, with a bulbous enlargement at the base. Near the posterior end the segments become rounded at the corners and somewhat elongated, until they graduate into the shape which is characteristic of the mature free joints.

Free proglottides (Figs. 4, 5) about twice as long as broad, very changeable in form, but in general rounded anteriorly; the extreme anterior end prolonged into a contractile papilla, which acts somewhat as a sucking-disk in aid of locomotion; posterior end truncate, with a narrow rim or border marked off from the basal edge by the transverse water-vessel. Sexual apertures marginal, opening a little back of the middle point. Penis very long; when erected, longer than the proglottis. Vagina opening immediately in front of the penis, flaring slightly at the mouth, quickly contracted into a short cylindrical tube, then expanding, finally reduced to a narrow tube, which runs anteriorly alongside a central clear space, enters the latter, and near its anterior end turns sharply, and runs back along the middle of the clear space until it unites with the ovaries in the posterior part of the proglottis.

Good preparations of the mature proglottides were obtained by subjecting them to slight pressure between two cover-glasses held in place by a spring wire-clip and hardened while in this position. When segments so prepared were afterwards stained, made transparent, and mounted, they were free from wrinkles or distortions, and showed the internal anatomy as well, indeed better, for topographical purposes, than could be shown with thin sections.

The chyle in the spiral intestine of the host, Tiger Shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*), swarmed with free proglottides, which were quite active. They had powers of independent movement and locomotion which gave them much the appearance of Trematods.

About twenty specimens in the strobile condition, but representing three stages of development, together with great numbers of free proglottides were found in the spiral intestine of a Tiger Shark (*G. tigrinus*). The larger adult specimens varied in length from one-half to one meter.

Measurements made on the largest specimen were as follows:

Total length of strobile.....	meter..	1
Breadth of head, lateral	millimeter..	15
Thickness of head, marginal.....	do..	6
Breadth of neck.....	do..	9
Breadth of posterior segment	do..	5
Length of posterior segment	do..	2

In this specimen all the mature proglottides had evidently become separated from the strobile. On another specimen, measuring 580^{mm} in length, the posterior proglottides were mature, and measured 5^{mm} in length and 2½^{mm} in breadth.

Measurements of free living segments give the following proportions: Length, 8^{mm}; breadth, 4 to 4.5^{mm}; length of penis, 4^{mm} +.

A second and younger stage was represented by specimens ranging in length from 190^{mm} to 230^{mm}. These differed from the next stage, described below, in size and in having a more or less evident beginning of a jointed condition. This, in the smaller forms of this second group, was indicated by tolerably distinct waving transverse lines. The largest specimen of this group, 230^{mm} in length, although tapering to a point at the posterior end like the others, had distinct segments for the last 30^{mm}.

Another group, consisting of quite young specimens, ranging in length from 31^{mm} to 57^{mm}, represented a third stage in the development of this worm (Figs. 7, 8). These are evidently the young of this species.

Measurements of one of them give the following dimensions:

	Millimeters.
Length of specimen.....	41.00
Length of head.....	1.50
Breadth of head	2.25
Length of rostellum	0.50
Breadth of neck just back of head	1.00
Breadth of posterior extremity.....	0.20

The neck increases slightly for a short distance back of the head. The body then tapers gradually and uniformly to the posterior end. In this group there is no sign of joints. Most of the specimens, particularly after they have been preserved in alcohol, have a much more compact arrangement of the folds of the bothria than appears in Fig. 7, which was sketched from a living specimen, one of the smallest of the lot. In larger specimens of this group the head is subglobose, with the edges of the bothria in crisp, closely lying folds, so that it is very difficult to make out the number of lobes of the bothria or to determine whether the latter are pediceled or sessile. The bothria are marginal, sessile, or on very short pedicels, each divided into at least two secondary lobes, which ultimately become a mass of crisp folds. In the center of the head, placed anteriorly, is a short chitinous rostellum on a pedicel of soft connection tissue (Figs. 7, 7a, 7b). Seen from the front this rostellum is quadrate, and presents to view four crescent-shaped bodies (Fig. 7a) with their convexities turned inward and inclosing a clear

space, in the center of which is a granular elevation. The tips of the horns of these crescents are sharp-pointed, and form a circle of eight hooks, which surrounds the tip of the rostellum. When this rostellum is viewed from the side, each crescent is seen to be the recurved anterior border of an oblong or triangular trough-like plate. These four triangular plates occupy much the same relative position with respect to each other as the jaws in *Echinus*, and suggest the "lantern" of that animal. This proboscis was observed in all of the smaller specimens and in some of the half-grown ones, but had been lost by all of the larger specimens. It seems to have but a feeble attachment to the head, and became detached from several specimens while they were being examined. The length of this rostellum in the half-grown specimens was about the same as that found in the smaller specimens, viz., about 0.5^{mm.}.

In a series of transverse sections made of a head of one of the larger specimens, it was noticed that there was a circular aperture in the sections of the anterior part of the head, which doubtless marks the place where the fleshy pedicel of the rostellum was inserted. The primary lobes of the bothria spring from a central muscular portion of the head (Figs. 9, 10), and consist of fascicles of muscular fibers which extend into the secondary and tertiary divisions. The crisped appearance of the head is due to minute crimped or frilled divisions of the lobes, and not to the crisping or curling of the free borders of the lobes, as in *P. lactea* Van Beneden. The solid, central part of the head which serves as a support for the so-called bothria, is pointed anteriorly, where the lobes, in transverse section, appear to radiate from a common point. It is on this extremity of the head that the base of the rostellum is situated. This central portion or core of the head increases in size until at the base of the head it has the dimensions given in the measurements as the thickness and width of the neck. A transverse section of the basal part of the head or of the neck, in the smaller specimens, is rhomboidal (Fig. 12). In the larger specimens the breadth of the neck is greater in proportion to the thickness than is the case in the smaller specimens. In Fig. 10 a transverse section is shown of the head of an adult at about the anterior third. The central core of the head at this point is quadrate, and but two of the vessels of the water-vascular system appear. Sections made transversely through the middle of the head show the central core to be oblong (Fig. 9). The central part of such a section is a clear space with a few connective tissue fibers and granular masses in it. Both fibers and granules become more crowded in the vicinity of the longitudinal vessels which are sharply defined in cross-section. A transverse vessel was observed in a section through the head, which connected the two inner longitudinal vessels. The central clear space is limited by a dense layer of muscular and connective tissue fibers, which make a circular layer of tissue that can be traced back into the neck where it becomes much

elongated and is surrounded by a layer of longitudinal fibers. In the head, outside of the ring of tissue which limits the central space, there may be seen in the sections both the cut ends of longitudinal fibers and also the beginning of transverse fibers, which extend out into the lobes of the head in dense fascicles.

The color of living specimens is translucent white, with sometimes a faint bluish tint. Alcoholic specimens are opaque, white, faintly yellowish, or cream-tinted.

This worm is near *P. lactuca* Van Beneden (*Les Vers Cestoides*, Pl. IV, Figs. 1-7), but differs from it in the following characters:

The neck and anterior unjointed part of the body are broader than the posterior mature segments. They are not so represented by Van Beneden for *P. lactuca*. The genital apertures instead of opening opposite the anterior third of the body of the proglottis, as in *P. lactuca*, open nearly opposite the posterior third. No mention is made of a rostellum in *P. lactuca*, but this difference alone would not justify the creation of a new specific name, since the rostellum could be easily overlooked, or if only mature strobiles were found, it is very probable that the rostella would have been lost.

Habitat.—Tiger Shark (*Galeocerdo tigrinus*), adult, half grown, and young specimens together in spiral intestine. July 23, 1885, Wood's Holl, Mass.

ORYGMATOBOTHRIUM Diesing.

Bothrioccephali spec. Siebold.

Anthobothrii spec. Van Beneden.

Tetrabothrii (*Anthobothrii*) spec. Molin.

Orygmatobothrium angustum, sp. nov.

[Plate III, Figs. 1-3.]

Head round-pointed in front with four bothria, which are unarmed, hollowed out or boat-shaped when at rest, with anterior extremities, round-pointed, slightly appressed and projecting in front and surmounted at the apex by a supplemental disk (auxiliary acetabulum). A second, larger disk lies in the center of the hollow of each bothrium. The posterior end of each is rounded, broader than anterior end, usually flaring away from the neck. Border of bothria raised, somewhat thickened with entire outline. Pedicels short, neck long, narrow, marked with transverse, closely parallel, slightly notched or crenulate rings, which give a serrate outline to the edge. Segments long and narrow, mature segments five times as long as wide. Genital apertures marginal. This worm is near *O. versatile* Dies. (*Revis. der Ceph. Ab. Par.*, 276.)*

**Bothrioccephalus auriculatus* Siebold, *Zeitschrift f. Wissenschaft. Zool.*, ii, 218, tab. xv, 12.

Anthobothrium musteli Van Beneden, *Mém. Acad. Belgique*, xxv, 126 and 190, tab. vii, 1.

Tetrabothrium (Orygmatobothrium) versatile Diesing, *Sitzungsbs.*, xiii, 582.

Tetrabothrium musteli Van Beneden, *Wagener, Nov. Act. Nat. Cur.*, xxiv, Suppl., 85, tab. xxii, 276-278.

It differs from *O. versatile*, however, in being much smaller, and in the proportions of the segments. In *O. versatile* the segments are square, while in *O. angustum* all the segments are long and narrow.

The following measurements were made from mounted specimens:

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.
	mm.	mm.	mm.
Length of strobile	17.00	18.00	20.00
Length of bothrium	0.64
Breadth of bothrium, widest part	0.32
Breadth of neck near head	0.14
Length of neck	5.00
Length of posterior segment	2.20	2.00	2.46
Breadth of posterior segment	0.44	0.28	0.54

The anterior supplemental disk (auxiliary acetabulum) is small and circular and is quite manifest. I must confess, however, that the identification of the other was not wholly satisfactory. An oval disk was distinguished in a few. In some heads stained with carmine, eosin, and haematoxylon, respectively, they cannot be distinguished. At about the anterior third the face of each bothrium, in the stained specimens, is crossed by a curved fibrous band which is concave in front. This band lies in the tissue of the bothrium and is not raised on the surface. It seems to be connected with another band lying farther back in the bothrium and deeper in its substance. If they are connected they probably make the oval border of the second disk. If one is to judge from the specimens in this lot—about fifteen in number—the secondary disk in the center of the bothria is an extreme doubtful character. It is plainly different in its nature from the anterior disk which was differentiated from the adjacent tissue clearly, both in unstained and stained specimens. The fine transverse striae on the neck, which may be distinguished also on the mature proglottides, are a more characteristic feature of this worm than the second disk (auxiliary acetabulum).

The genital organs open nearly opposite the anterior fourth of the proglottis, on the margin.

The vagina can be traced from the posterior end of the segment, where it originates as a coiled tube, lying between the two marginally placed ovaries. It lies along the central line of the segment, until a short distance in front of a point opposite the vaginal opening, where it turns, forming a crook-shaped curve, and opens in front of the penis. The latter organ and the testis lie in the curve of the crook.

Habitat.—Dusky Shark (*Carcharias obscurus*), in spiral intestine. Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1884.

CROSSOBOTHRIUM,* gen. nov.

Body articulated, slender, flattened, subquadrate; neck short or none; bothria four, opposite, pedicled, unarmed, each provided with

* *Kροσσοί* = a border, fringe.

one auxiliary acetabulum on the anterior border. Faces of bothria with a raised rim or border, which becomes more or less free, cut, or frilled as the worm grows weak, or when placed in fresh water or alcohol.

Genital apertures, both male and female, marginal. Development not known.

This genus is closely allied to *Phyllobothrium* Van Beneden, but differs from it in having the bothria pediceled instead of sessile, and in the absence of a distinct neck.

Crossobothrium laciniatum bears some resemblance to *Anthobothrium cornucopia* Van Ben., particularly in the shape of the segments, but differs from it in having distinct auxiliary acetabula, and in having the segments begin immediately behind the head. The bothria are not so long-pediceled as in *A. cornucopia*. The bothria, especially in living specimens in sea-water, bear a superficial resemblance to *Orygmatobothrium versatile* Dies. (*Anthobothrium musteli* Van Ben.), but there is no trace of a second auxiliary acetabulum on the face of the bothria. The habit of the strobile is, furthermore, quite different from *O. versatile* Dies.

Crossobothrium laciniatum, gen. et sp. nov.

[Plate III, Figs. 4-18.]

Body articulated, slightly flattened; cross-section of segments near head quadrangular; ratio of thickness to breadth about 1 to 2. The segments begin immediately behind the head, each is characterized by having four marginal flaps on the posterior border. The anterior segments in the larger specimens, for a distance of 20 or 30^{mm} back of the head, are about as broad as long, the posterior angles projecting into prominent triangular flaps, which, in a few cases, stand out almost at right angles to the face of the segments, but are usually appressed. The bodies of the segments are translucent, the posterior borders and projecting flaps opaque and ivory white in color. This feature is especially noticeable in specimens which have lain a few minutes in fresh water. Behind these slender anterior segments the remaining segments increase in breadth without increasing in length. Near the middle of the strobile the ratio of length to breadth is about 2 to 9. The median segments are flat and the triangular flaps develop into broad, rounded lobes. These lobes form a free border, which is sometimes reflexed and usually emarginate on the lateral edge.

The posterior segments are considerably lengthened; length about 1.5^{mm}; breadth about 2^{mm}, flattened; outline usually rounded or waving, narrower in front than behind, emarginate on lateral edge. (Plate III, Figs. 7, 8.) The shape of the free proglottides varies greatly while they are living, but at rest or in alcoholic specimens it is quite uniform.

The postero-lateral border is profoundly emarginate; the outline of the margin concave behind, then convex throughout the greater part of the length, concave again near the anterior end, which is extended into

a rounded knob. (Plate III, Fig. 12.) In some free segments with a less rounded outline the shape is much like that of a steeple-crown hat with a drooping, flexible rim. Length of a mature free proglottis 2.8^{mm}; breadth of posterior edge, measured from tip to tip of the reflexed border, 2.1^{mm}; breadth of posterior, exclusive of reflexed border, 1.7^{mm}, tapering to an obtuse point in front. The bothria are four in number, marginal, short-pedicled, unarmed, each provided with a single supplemental disk (auxiliary acetabulum Diesing) on the anterior border.

The bothria of living, active specimens undergo such profound changes upon being transferred from sea-water to fresh water that it is necessary, in order to guard against mistakes, to give separate descriptions for each condition.

If allowed to lie in sea-water, these worms continue active for several hours. Some, after lying for twenty-four hours in sea-water, were still quite active, moving their bothria incessantly and alternately contracting and elongating the body and throwing it into irregular kinks and folds. The bothria are extremely mobile. They are usually hollowed out or boat-shaped on the face, bounded by a thickened rim or border which merges into the auxiliary acetabulum in front. In a resting position they are oval in shape, more or less narrowed in front and rounded posteriorly. Locomotion is effected by thrusting the bothria forward and attaching the face as a sucking disk to the surface over which the worm is moving, and thus dragging the body along. The bothria are usually thrust forward in pairs, the two which would stand diagonally opposite in a cross-section constituting a pair. They are thrust forward bodily and at the same time become greatly elongated in front. This attenuated part of each is frequently bent outward at right angles, so that the two stand apart like a pair of recurved horns. (Plate III, Fig. 11.) The remaining pair of bothria meanwhile is some distance back of the forward pair and much contracted longitudinally, the apex of each being a short distance behind the rounded papillary apex of the head. Each bothrium when thrust forward and attenuated is tipped by the auxiliary acetabulum, which forms a sort of sucker. Each individual bothrium, while active, resembles in its motions the movements of a common leech. The resemblance is heightened by the auxiliary acetabulum, which has much the appearance and is used in the same manner as the anterior sucker of some leeches. Often the posterior ends of the bothria bend outward and forward until they almost meet the recurved anterior ends. The under bothrium was noticed sometimes adhering to the bottom of the watch-glass in which the specimen was lying and spread out into a broad, thin, circular disk. In this case all appearance of a thickened border to the face of the bothrium was obliterated. Behind the bothria the head contracts suddenly into a short, neck-like part, which is about the same size and shape as the first segments, and, like them, is terminated by four triangular lappets at each of the four angles. This latter feature

is unchanged either by fresh water or alcohol. When placed in fresh water the bothria become profoundly modified. Two distinct forms were observed; in one lot the specimens measuring from 112 to 124^{mm} in length, the breadth of the head is 3.5^{mm}, its length is 1.5^{mm}. The bothria are trumpet-shaped, very transparent and delicate, the outer face convex and surrounded by a delicate, narrow, raised border. It is circular except at the anterior edge, where it is broadly indented and interrupted by a circular, opaque disk (the auxiliary acetabulum). (Plate III, Fig. 6.)

In a second lot, the individuals of which measure from 95 to 250^{mm} in length, the breadth of the head is about 2^{mm}, its length 1.5^{mm}. (In an active specimen in sea-water the length of the head is about one-half of the breadth.) The rim or border of the bothria is irregular, broken, or ragged in outline, which gives to the head a crisped appearance, so as to suggest upon superficial examination the genus *Phyllobothrium* (Plate III, Fig. 5). The auxiliary acetabula are often concealed by the ragged edges of the bothria, but they can be plainly seen in a top view of the head (Plate III, Fig. 15).

Both the male and female apertures are marginal. It is often very difficult to make out the course of the vagina. By compressing a free proglottis, or better by flattening a proglottis between two glass slips and hardening it while in that position, and afterwards staining and transferring to glycerine or oil of cloves, the topography of the genital apparatus can be made out. At first I was wholly at fault with regard to the position of the vaginal opening, having been misled by the lateral aperture which is usually to be seen in the mature segments and from which the ova are discharged. This aperture resembles the vaginal opening in many of the *Dibothriæ*. It is found only in the posterior segments of the largest specimens and in the free proglottides. It is not always present even in these, as it is not unusual to find a free proglottis without the lateral aperture. When such a proglottis is examined its central part will be found to be filled with ova, often to such an extent that the lateral face of the proglottis is swollen in the middle so as to have a convex outline. In this case the lateral aperture may be seen already outlined but closed by a thin membrane, upon the rupture of which the eggs make their escape. The ovary is a lobed, glandular body lying near the posterior end of the proglottis. The vagina after leaving the ovary follows the median line but a short distance. It bends in a uniform curve towards the margin, and in its outer part lies immediately in front of the penis and very close to it. In the specimens which I have examined the course of the vagina as it approached the margin could not be made out until after it was differentiated by staining with carmine. The marginal aperture of the vagina is very small and is situated immediately in front of the penis. When the latter is retracted the two genital apertures seem to have the same marginal opening. The penis is long and slender. In some cases it was

found protruding as much as 0.5^{mm}. It is covered with minute spines whose length is about one-eighth the breadth of the penis. The vas deferens is a long convoluted tube lying for the most part a little in front of the center of the proglottis. The central part of the proglottis around the ova is filled with the large glandular masses of the testes. The longitudinal vessels of the water-vascular system can usually be distinguished and between them and the margin, on each side, a series of granular masses, more opaque and smaller than the masses which make up the testes, extending to the ovary and widening in the vicinity of that organ. The lateral aperature for the discharge of eggs is situated a little way back of the middle and is surrounded by a low border or lip. It is oval in outline, the longer axis coinciding with the longitudinal axis of the segment and equal to about one-eighth the length of the segment. Its posterior edge is at about the posterior third of the segment and nearly opposite the marginal opening of the generative organs.

The following measurements were made upon living specimens which had lain for a few hours in fresh water:

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.
Length of strobile.....	mm. 100.00	mm. 142.00	mm. 195.00	mm. 212.00
Breadth of head.....	1.7	1.90	1.80	1.8
Length of head.....	1.4	1.50	1.45	1.5
Breadth of segments near head, excluding projecting flaps.....	0.6	0.56	0.70	0.7
Length of segments near head.....	0.7	0.35	0.50	0.7
Breadth of posterior segments.....	1.7	1.26	1.90	1.8
Length of posterior segments.....	1.2	1.26	1.60	1.4

The following measurements are from a segment which became detached from a strobile while still living and active in sea-water:

	Millimeters.
Length.....	3.10
Breadth in front	1.05
Breadth, middle	2.45
Breadth, posterior end	2.10
Length of penis.....	0.35
Breadth of penis.....	0.0875
Length of spines on penis.....	0.0100
Diameter of ova.....	0.0254

The breadth given above is approximate, as the segment was constantly changing its shape; the penis was only partly everted.

The following measurements are from a young specimen, in fresh water:

	Millimeters.
Entire length.....	20.00
Length of head	1.20
Breadth of head	1.80
Length of anterior segments.....	0.10
Breadth of anterior segments.....	0.30
Length of median segments	0.07
Breadth of median segments	0.90
Posterior segments but little larger than anterior.	

Several young specimens were obtained, measuring from 5 to 20^{mm} in length. In these the bothria were identical in shape and habit with those of the adult. In the younger specimens, however, the part of the head to which the bothria are attached was proportionally larger than it is in the adult. In the larger specimens of young the laciniate segments occurred throughout the entire length; in smaller specimens they occurred only near the head and at the posterior end, while the intermediate parts of the strobile were unsegmented or marked with faint transverse lines. In many of the smallest forms there were no laciniate segments, while the posterior end of the strobile carried a number of elongated segment-like bodies, totally unlike the segments of the adult. These pseudo-segments are evidently evanescent. (Plate III, Fig. 17.)

Habitat.—Sand Shark (*Odontaspis littoralis*), in spiral intestine, young and adult together, abundant, chyle swarming with free proglottides. July and August, Wood's Holl, Mass.

PHOREIOBOTHRIUM,* gen. nov.

Near *Cylindrophorus* Diesing.

Tetrabothrii Spec. Wagener.

Cylindrophorus typicus Diesing, Revis. d. Ceph. Ab. Par., p. 264.

Tetrabothrium Carchariae Rondoletti Wagener, Nov. Act. Nat. Cur., xxiv,

Suppl. 4 and 84, tab. xxii, 270–273; Statu larvæ Wagener, l. c. 4 and 84,
tab. xxi, 266–268, tab. xxii, 269.

“Genus hoc insufficienter cognitum provisorio modo nomine *Cylindrophori notavi*” Diesing.

Body elongated, articulate. Head separated from the body by a neck. Bothria four, opposite, tubular, parallel, entire, each armed with compound hooks and provided with one supplemental disk (auxiliary acetabulum) in front. Minute spines on neck, or on neck and body. Genital apertures marginal.

Phoreiobothrium lasium,† gen. et spec. nov.

[Plate IV, Figs. 24–29.]

Head separated from the body by a neck. Bothria four, marginal, flat-tubular, subrectangular in outline, each with two compound hooks placed anteriorly, and one auxiliary acetabulum in front of hooks near the lateral edge of the bothrium. Face of the bothria hollowed out, with a thickened or raised border, so that each bothrium resembles a shallow tray. Inner edges of bothria united by a thin membrane, in which lie bands of fibrous tissue. Posterior end of the bothria elliptical, with a thickened ring or border, and marked with striae parallel with the smaller diameter. These striae, when highly magnified, prove to be low ridges, which give to the end of a bothrium the appearance of a coarse rasp. These striae or ridges are not seen plainly unless the

* Φορεῖον = a tray.

† λάσιος = bristly.

bothria are reflexed. Neck flattened, rather slender, increasing uniformly backwards and merging imperceptibly into the jointed body, covered, sometimes sparsely, sometimes thickly, with very small, straight, sharp, bristle-like spines. The body has at first an unbroken outline, the square segments being indicated simply by fine, transverse lines. Farther back the segments become elongated, with the corners slightly rounded. Genital apertures marginal, opening about the middle line.

The compound hooks of the head have three recurved prongs each, the middle one slightly longer than the others, the inner one the shortest. These prongs rise from a common horizontal part, which is itself supported by a flattened or spatulate process, which lies immediately under the middle prong, is about the same length and parallel with it.

The following measurements were made from a mounted specimen:

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile	40.00
Length of head	0.52
Breadth of head	0.44
Breadth of neck	0.12
Length of first segments, 2 ^{mm} from head	0.03
Breadth of first segments	0.01
Length of segments, 3 ^{mm} from head	0.20
Breadth of segments, 3 ^{mm} from head	0.42
Length of segment, 6 ^{mm} from head	0.34
Breadth of segments, 6 ^{mm} from head	0.42
Length of posterior segments	2.20
Breadth of posterior segments	0.84
Length of hooks	0.10
Length of bristly spines on neck or body	0.01

A few specimens in the lot differed from the prevailing type in being much more irregular in outline and having in general a more fragile structure. The neck is much distorted by contraction and much broader than in the prevailing type; the first segments, on the contrary, are longer and more slender. The posterior segments are elliptical, oblong, flatter, and more fragile in appearance.

In one specimen I found what seemed to be a transverse costa on the face of a bothrium. I looked in vain for a similar characteristic in the other specimens of the lot. If such costæ could be proved to be characteristic of this worm it would indicate a very close relationship with *Calliobothrium*.

In some the bristly spines were found on the neck and not on the body, in others sparsely on the body and not on the neck, in others thickly on both neck and body. They are, without doubt, the remnant of a bristly outer covering of the body, which is characteristic of the young and larval conditions of this genus.

The genus *Cylindrophorus* is a provisional one made by Diesing to include a single species which is not well known. He, however, includes it among those *Tetrabothriæ*, which are characterized by having no auxiliary acetabula on the bothria. The presence of a well-defined auxiliary

acetabulum in this worm is therefore sufficient reason for not including it in the genus *Cylindrophorus*. The almost invariable occurrence of spines on the neck or body, or both, together with the shape of the bothria and hooks, present so many points of resemblance to Wagener's figures, from which Diesing created the generic name *Cylindrophorus*, that I do not feel justified in adding a new generic term to the already burdened nomenclature of Helminthology without at the same time admitting Diesing's *Cylindrophorus* in the probable synonymy of the genus.

The ovaries occupy nearly the posterior fourth of the proglottis. The vagina extends, from its origin in the ovaries, as a sinuous duct along the median line of the proglottis until it reaches the middle point, where it turns nearly at right angles and opens in front of and immediately adjoining the penis. The latter organ is retracted and lies coiled up in the angle of the vagina, but seems to be connected with a convoluted mass, which is situated centrally in the proglottis. A median tube can be traced from near the anterior end of the proglottis to the angle of the vagina and seems to lie parallel with that duct for some distance. Its union with the latter could not be made out. The greater part of the interior of the proglottis is filled with irregular granular masses, each of which is composed of several irregular or disk-shaped pieces, which are rather loosely joined together.

In a specimen which had been subjected to double staining in green and red analine colors, the ovaries in the base of the proglottis and what appeared to be their continuation into a double row of coarse granular masses lying along each margin, had a strong affinity for the blue staining. On the margins, outside of the coarse granular layer, a fine granular layer, and outside of that a transparent, structureless, epidermal layer, were differentiated. The vagina and antero-median tube were also slightly stained with the green. The interior compound granular masses, the penis, and the convoluted mass of tubes (vas defrens) were unaffected by the green coloring matter. They were clearly differentiated, though not deeply stained, by the red analine, nearly all the red stain having disappeared when the specimen was washed in alcohol.

Habitat.—Dusky Shark (*Carcharias obscurus*), in spiral intestine. August, 1884, Wood's Holl, Mass.

CALLIOBOTHRIUM Van Beneden.

Calliobothrium verticillatum Rudolphi.

[Plate IV, Figs. 1-8.]

Onchobothrium verticillatum Rud., Diesing, Syst. Helm., i, 606.

Calliobothrium verticillatum Van Beneden, Dies., Revis. d. Ceph. Ab. Par., p. 280-281. Van Beneden, in Mem. Acad. Belgique, xxv, 133 and 192, tab. xii.

Bothrioccephalus verticillatus Rud., Synops., 142 and 484. Leuckart, Zool. Bruchst., i, 56, tab. ii, 41, fragm. Nitzsch., Ersch., and Grub., Encycl., xii, 99. Dujardin, Hist. Nat. des Helminth., 621. Creplin, Troschel's Arch., 1849, i, 73.

Acanthobothrium verticillatum Van Beneden, Bullet. Acad. Belgique, xvi, ii, 79.
Onchobothrium (Calliobothrium) verticillatum Diesing, Sitzungsber. der Kais. Akad., xiii (1854), 585. Molin, l. c., xxx (1858), 135, xxxiii (1858), 292, and xxxviii (1859), 10; Idem, Denkschr., xix, 239, tab. v, 3.
Tetrabothrium verticillatum Wagener, Nov. Act. Nat. Cur., xxiv, Suppl. 85, tab. xxii, 274 and 275.

Head continuous, with the subquadangular body. Bothria four, angular, subelliptical, unequally divided into three loculi by two transverse ribs; each bothrium armed with four simple hooks, and provided, in front of hooks, with a trilocular, auxiliary acetabulum, the loculi of the latter arranged in a triangle. Hooks equal and arranged in pairs. Body filiform anteriorly, increasing posteriorly; anterior segments provided with four triangular, lacinate processes on the postero-lateral margin, followed by other segments bearing one, and still others bearing two, additional flaps on each postero-lateral margin, subsequent segments with two rounded flaps near posterior, nearly circular in outline; ultimate segments considerably elongated. Genital apertures marginal. Length 75^{mm} to 100^{mm}.

Habitat.—Found at Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1884, in spiral intestine of Smooth Dogfish (*Mustelus canis*).

In this species there is so much difference between segments occurring in different parts of the strobile, that some additional notes are necessary in order to make trustworthy identifications in cases where only fragments are found. The head is so small that it may be easily overlooked by the collector; moreover the anterior segments are so delicate that, as is often the case, they break and leave the head imbedded in the mucous membrane of the intestines of their host. The anterior portion of a living specimen, when isolated from its natural surroundings and placed in clear water, resembles a very delicate white hair. It may therefore easily escape any but the most careful search. The head itself is only about one-eighth as broad as the head of a common pin, while the breadth of the segments immediately behind the head is about the same as that of a human hair, and the thickness is only about one-third the breadth. The first segments are nearly twice as long as broad, flat and thin, somewhat distinctly four-angled, so that a cross-section is rectangular. The segments are continued at the postero-lateral corners into four triangular flaps, which are about one-fourth the length of the segment proper. The posterior margins of the segments, including the flaps, are thick, white, and opaque in life, while the bodies of the segments are translucent.

A few segments back from the head the middle of the postero-lateral margin of the segment begins to rise, and soon assumes the form of a third flap. In one specimen, which measured 68^{mm} in length, this third flap begins about the 38th segment. This character continues for several joints until about the 70th segment, when the median flap becomes bifid; at the 80th segment it has become decidedly two-notched, and at the 120th it is divided into two lobes, so that in this part of the body

the postero-lateral edges of the segments are each distinctly four-lobed. The two original flaps, those near the margins, continue, however, to be a little longer and sharper-pointed than the two median ones. At the 150th segment the two middle flaps or lobes become indistinct, and are represented only by gentle flexures of the posterior margin; the notch between them is at this point broad and shallow. From the 160th or 164th to the 192d segment the median notch deepens gradually, and the secondary or median lobes disappear, leaving the postero-lateral margin two-lobed, the inner margin of each lobe with a slightly waving convex outline. The segments thus far are short and somewhat crowded, the length, in the specimen measured, after mounting in Canada balsam, uniformly about 0.14^{mm} to 0.16^{mm}. At the point where the segments become two-lobed the margins become rounded, convex, the segments lengthen to about 0.20^{mm}. At the 200th segment the proglottides are nearly circular in outline, globose in living specimens. At this point the segments begin to lengthen abruptly. The average length of the last four segments, with circular outline, being 0.64^{mm}, while the average length of the next four segments is 1.02^{mm}. The last segment the 212th in the specimen from which the above measurements were taken, measured 1.90^{mm} in length and 0.84^{mm} in breadth.

The following measurements are intended to show the proportions at different points on the strobile. They were made from mounted specimens, and consequently may be a little less than they would be if taken from living specimens:

	Milimeters.
Length of specimen	60.00
Breadth of head, in front	0.23
Length of bothria	0.30
Breadth of bothria, front and middle	0.10
Breadth of bothria, posterior end	0.04
Spread of hooks, tip to tip	0.16
Length of hooks	0.14
Breadth of segments just back of head	0.076
Breadth of segments 1 ^{mm} back of head	0.09
Length of segments without flaps	0.127
Length of segments including flaps	0.159
Breadth of segments 2 ^{mm} back of head	0.16
Thickness	0.02
Length	0.14
Length, including flaps	0.16
Breadth of segments 11 ^{mm} back of head	0.30
Thickness	0.08
Thickness, including flaps	0.16
Breadth of segments 18 ^{mm} back of head, four lobes	0.46
Length	0.16
Thickness	0.10
Breadth of segments 22 ^{mm} back of head	0.52
Breadth of segments 33 ^{mm} back of head, two lobes	0.66
Length, including flaps	0.16
Breadth of segments 45 ^{mm} back of head, round segments	0.78

	Millimeters.
Length	0.74
Length of posterior segments	1.90
Breadth of posterior segments	0.84
In another specimen:	
Length of posterior segments	2.20
Breadth of posterior segments	0.78

Number of joints in one specimen about 32, the last 11 of which were mature.

There was one prominent, transverse rib at about the posterior third of each bothrium; another, much less prominent, about the middle, at the extremities of the inner pair of recurved hooks, and two other faint, transverse lines, parallel with the ribs and apparently homologous with them, between this and the base of the hooks. The trilocular auxiliary acetabula showed but faintly in most of the specimens.

There is considerable difference between the anterior segments of the specimens examined and those figured by Van Beneden (*Vers Cestoïdes*, tab. xii). In Van Beneden's figures the anterior segments are represented as being several times as long as broad, and with the flaps rudimentary and rounded. The sketches of the head and anterior segments (Figs. 1, 2) were made from a mounted specimen. The proportions are identical with those of the living specimens, as is proved by comparing these sketches with some memorandum sketches made at the time of collecting. Among all the specimens, eight or ten in all, not one was noticed in which the segments differed materially from those represented in the figures. In Wagener's figures (*Entwick. d. Cestoden*, tab. xxii, fig. 274) the proportions of the anterior segments are about the same as I have found them. The transverse costæ of the bothria do not agree exactly with the figures of Van Beneden and Wagener, but the differences are so slight, that I have no hesitation in pronouncing the specimens which I have examined identical with those figured by Van Beneden and Wagener.

Family DIBOTHRIORHYNCHIDÆ *Diesing.*

RHYNCHOBOTHRIUM Rudolphi.

Tanice spec. Fabricius.

Bothriocephali (*Rhynchobothrii*) and *Tetrahyynchus* spec. Rudolphi.
Bothriorhynchus Van Lidth.

Rhynchobothrium bisulcatum, sp. nov.

[Plate IV, Figs. 9-23.]

Head subconical, bluntly rounded in front. Bothria two, lateral, separating slightly at posterior corners, coalescing in front, each divided into two distinct lobes by a median sulcus, which extends from the posterior border about one-fourth the length of the bothrium, where it divides into two less distinct but clearly marked sulci, which diverge

and inclose two sides of a triangular space. At the extreme anterior end of each of these secondary sulci is situated one of the four proboscides. Each bothrium is broadly convex on the posterior border, with often a slight emargination on the posterior edge of each lobe. Each lobe is triangular, the posterior side being the posterior edge of the bothrium, the outer side being the marginal edge of the bothrium, and the inner side being bounded by the median sulcus and one of its branches. The central portion or face of each lobe is sometimes depressed, which gives rise to the appearance of a double furrow on each side of the median triangular piece. Posterior edges of bothria thick and fleshy, overlapping the neck. Neck tubular, conical, sometimes slightly swollen back of the head, a little shorter than the bothria, the posterior fourth prolonged into a collar, which incloses the anterior part of the body and its articulation with the neck. Proboscides (*trypanorynchi* Dies.) four, a little shorter than head, armed with numerous hooks arranged in spirals, about eight visible in each spiral; spirals about 0.02^{mm} apart. Hooks recurved, pointed, broad at base in an antero-posterior direction, very thin from side to side, those near the base of the proboscis shorter-curved and blunter than the others. Proboscis sheaths straight in front, but with a single short spiral curve at the posterior end where they join the contractile bulbs, with one of which each is connected. The four contractile bulbs, which lie side by side in the neck, are about twice as long as broad and about one-half the length of the neck. The distance between the point of articulation between the neck and the body and the posterior end of the contractile bulbs is normally about one-third the length of the latter.

So far as examined the heads presented the same general outline, with one exception. In the exceptional case noted there is a slight constriction of the bothria where they overlap the neck, at the point which marks the greatest diameter of the head in all the other specimens. This imparts to the head a more rounded outline in front than in the others, and a less diameter proportionally at the base of the bothria.

The body, usually very much attenuated anteriorly, is unjointed for a short distance back of the head. Fine transverse lines soon make their appearance, and shortly afterwards the first segments are formed. The latter are usually much broader than long, and rectangular in outline. Although they sometimes are lengthened with rounded corners, so as to give to the series of segments a beaded appearance.

The mature proglottides are always squarish, or rectangular, sometimes longer than broad, sometimes broader than long. The male genital openings are marginal, irregularly alternate, always near the anterior edge of the proglottis. Female genital openings lateral, median dehiscent, apparently not appearing until the proglottides are almost ready to separate.

Length of strobiles with mature proglottides from 40^{mm} to 230^{mm}.

The following measurements of head and neck give proportions which hold good for all:

Dimensions.	Marginal view.	Lateral view.
	mm.	mm.
Length of head.....	0.90	1.04
Breadth of head.....	1.10	1.04
Length of neck.....	0.76	0.70
Breadth of neck, anterior.....	0.72	0.76
Breadth of neck, posterior.....	0.40	0.44
Breadth of strobile back of neck.....	0.28	0.28

	Millimeters.
Length of proboscis.....	0.840
Breadth of proboscis, exclusive of projecting hooks.....	0.043
Breadth of proboscis, inclusive of projecting hooks.....	0.078
Length of anterior hooks.....	0.023
Breadth of base of anterior hooks.....	0.013
Length of hooks on base of proboscis.....	0.014
Breadth of base of hooks on base of proboscis.....	0.011

In the summer of 1884 I obtained two lots of these worms from the alimentary tract of the Dusky Shark (*Carcharias obscurus*).

The first lot, containing approximately 200 individuals, was lodged in the pyloric portion of the stomach, where the worms were so massed together as to make a swelling in the pylorus which was discernible before opening.

These specimens were not studied closely while they were alive. Upon examining them subsequently as alcoholic specimens, it was found that there was a very considerable variation in the length of the strobiles, and to some extent in the proportions of the segments. In the foregoing description I have enumerated those characters which belong to all; but inasmuch as there are some more or less clearly marked groups among them I shall add some further observations. I deem this of importance, for the reason that, if it were not for the great number of intermediate forms which these two lots furnish, one might be justified in making two, if not three, distinct species instead of one. The second lot came from the pylorus and spiral intestine of the same species of shark (*C. obscurus*).

Three groups were observed in the first lot. These differ from each other principally in the shape and proportions of the segments, the distance from the head at which mature proglottides occur, and in the total length of the strobile.

In the first group, which, for the sake of clearness, I shall name var. α (Plate IV, Figs. 9-12), the mature proglottides are flat and thin, square, or the posterior ones a little broader than long. When there are but few mature proglottides they increase in breadth rather abruptly, so that the strobile has a somewhat club-shaped or linear-obovate outline.

Generative organs: male not conspicuous, smooth, marginal, near anterior edge of proglottis as in all; female lateral, median, dehiscent, in mature proglottides easily recognized as a clear central spot; length of strobile as short as 36^{mm}; average, perhaps, about 45^{mm}, although it seems to graduate into var. β , which is much longer. In one specimen measuring 48^{mm}, the last twelve proglottides were mature and had an average length of 1^{mm}.

Measurements of a specimen, var. α , made from a mounted specimen, and hence probably a little distorted:

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile.....	36.00
Length of bothria.....	0.80
Breadth of head	0.90
Length of neck.....	0.70
Breadth of neck in front.....	0.60
Breadth of neck, posterior end.....	0.36
Length of proboscis.....	0.70
Length of proboscis sheath	0.76
Length of contractile bulb	0.32
Breadth of contractile bulb.....	0.14
Length of posterior proglottis	0.80
Breadth of posterior proglottis	1.30

The second group I shall also, for convenience, designate as a variety, calling it var. β (Plate IV, Figs. 17-20). The strobile, like that of var. α , is flat and thin, but is much longer. The mature proglottides do not make their appearance until 100^{mm}, or even 200^{mm}, back of the head. The first segments are short and broad; the succeeding segments increase in length until they become longer than broad. The median and postero-median segments are frequently rounded at the corners, giving to the strobile a beaded appearance. This character is usually present in those segments which immediately precede the mature proglottides. Usually about three longitudinal striæ can be traced on the median segments (Figs. 18-19). The posterior segments are rectangular, longer than broad. The following measurements were made on a mounted specimen, var. β .

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile.....	230.00
Length of head.....	0.76
Breadth of head	0.94
Length of neck.....	0.70
Breadth of neck in front	0.70
Breadth of neck, posterior end	0.40
Length of proboscis.....	0.60
Length of proboscis sheath	0.64
Length of contractile bulb	0.36
Breadth of contractile bulb.....	0.16
Breadth of strobile back of neck	0.26
Length of posterior proglottis.....	1.54
Breadth of posterior proglottis	1.20

A third group, which comprises individuals that have certain characteristics separating them from the two preceding groups, I have distin-

guished as var. γ (Plate IV, Figs. 13-16). These are all immature strobiles, but are much longer than var. α , and in some cases as long as var. β . The strobile is much thicker and rather wider than those of varieties α and β . The posterior segments, although not mature in any of the specimens, have a conspicuous male generative organ. The female generative opening is represented by a lateral, median, slightly raised papilliform eminence. Length about 100^{mm}; average length of last 30 segments 0.6^{mm}. The posterior segments are 2½ to 3 times as broad as long.

Measurements made from two mounted specimens.

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.
Length of strobile.....	mm. 92.00	mm. 82.00
Length of head.....	1.10	0.70
Breadth of head.....	1.18	0.86
Length of neck*.....	1.00	0.60
Breadth of neck in front.....	0.80	0.54
Breadth of neck, posterior end.....	0.44	0.40
Length of proboscis.....	0.70	0.70
Length of proboscis sheath.....	0.90	0.70
Length of contractile bulb.....	0.46	0.36
Breadth of contractile bulb.....	0.16	0.10
Breadth of strobile back of neck.....	0.30	0.30
Length of posterior segment.....	0.50	0.40
Breadth of posterior segment.....	1.60	1.36

* In all measurements of the neck the distance from the postero-lateral or postero-marginal edge of the bothria to the posterior edge of the collar is the one given.

In the second lot containing about fifty specimens, the strobiles are not so mature as those of the first lot. The three varieties noted in the first lot are not so distinctly marked off. There are, however, two distinct kinds in this lot, which may possibly be due to the effect of the preservatives, but which are sufficiently noteworthy to be mentioned here. In the first the lobes of the bothria are smooth and bounded by regular curved lines as in the first lot, but with the centers of the faces of the lobes slightly hollowed out or depressed, so as to produce the effect of a raised border, and double furrows on the lateral face of the bothrium.

In the second the bothria are irregularly furrowed or wrinkled. The bothria are shorter than the neck. The neck is also wrinkled. These differences, although sufficiently marked to attract attention, do not occasion much perplexity where one remembers the wonderful powers of contractility possessed by the *Cestoidea*. They might, however, lead to confusion of species in cases where only a few specimens are at hand.

In describing new species of the *Cestoidea*, I am satisfied that, where it is possible, a great many specimens should be examined before final conclusions are reached. If this rule had been adopted by former workers in this field of Systematic Zoology the older literature of Helminthology would not be in its present state of confusion.

Attachment to the host.—Those found in the pylorus were not firmly attached, but would release their hold when the point of a scalpel was

applied to their heads. This was characteristic of those of the first lot. With those found in the spiral valve, however, the case was quite different. In it these parasites were found to be firmly attached to the wall of the intestine. Many of them had tunneled holes in the mucous and submucous coats. In some cases these tunnels cut through the muscular coats of the intestine and opened into the interior body cavity. In some instances several heads were found occupying the same cavity. One of these pockets was 6.5^{mm} deep. In it were imbedded three heads belonging to three strobiles 20^{mm}, 32^{mm}, and 55^{mm} long, respectively. The heads were so tightly fastened in their fleshy cavern that they had to be cut out before they could be removed. A peculiarity of the individuals of this second lot is a tendency to contract the anterior segments, so that instead of being attenuated as in most of those of the first lot, the anterior segments are at first nearly as broad as the neck, and immediately widen until they are as broad or even broader than the head. This gives the worm the appearance of being constricted just back of the head. This habit of tunneling into the flesh of its host must make this parasite a very unpleasant guest. Usually in the case of those *Cestoidea* which infest the alimentary canal of their host, their presence cannot give rise to much pain, unless they are present in numbers sufficient to occasion obstruction. But with this worm it is quite otherwise. Wherever tunnels in the walls of the intestine caused by this worm were observed, it was noticed that there was much irritation of the mucous membrane. Not only was the mucous coat highly inflamed, but the inflammation often extended into the submucous and muscular coats. The whole interior of the spiral valve was blotched with angry-looking sores. If this is at all common, then we find in this worm an enemy of the Dusky Shark, small but not insignificant. It is certainly encouraging to find in nature, in the too small army of enemies which are arrayed in warfare against the Selachians, these humble sappers and miners lending their aid towards keeping down the numbers of these Ishmaelites of the sea.

Abnormal forms.—In the second lot a few monstrosities were observed, two of which are figured (Plate IV, Figs. 21 and 22). The first example, Fig. 22, is a strobile 13^{mm} in length, which, at about 2^{mm} from the posterior end, gives off from the postero-marginal edge a secondary strobile, in which there are about four joints faintly marked. The dimensions of the segment which sends off this budding part are: Length, 0.1^{mm}; breadth, 0.72^{mm}; of the succeeding segment, length, 0.1^{mm}; breadth, 0.62^{mm}; of the budding portion, length, 1.08^{mm}; breadth, 0.06^{mm}. The second example, Fig. 21, is a fragment; length of strobile not known. The segments have the beginnings of the male genital organs. A secondary strobile is given off from the margin of the primary strobile in a somewhat different manner from the one just described. A tendency towards a marginal thickening can be seen on the third segment in front of the one from which the secondary strobile becomes free. In the succeeding segments this marginal thickening;

or rather widening, is more pronounced, and there is the beginning of an independent alar margin. On the next segment the alary margin is one-fourth the breadth of the segment itself, and from it springs the secondary series of segments. The breadth of the three segments mentioned is 0.82^{mm}, 0.86^{mm}, 0.90^{mm}, respectively, or of the latter, exclusive of the alary margin, 0.72^{mm}. The breadth of the succeeding segment is 0.72^{mm}. The length of each of these segments is 0.26^{mm}. Length of secondary strobile, 2.46^{mm}; number of segments, 21; breadth, 0.20^{mm} to 0.24^{mm}; average length, 0.12^{mm}.

Eversion and inversion of proboscis.—The proboscides do not play backwards and forwards in their sheaths like a piston-rod in its barrel, but each folds in upon itself from the outer extremity like the finger of a glove. When a proboscis is fully extended it has the appearance of a slender, solid cylinder, covered with recurved hooks. If, however, one which is not fully extended be examined, it will be found to be folded in upon itself from the outer end. As the hooks point backwards when the proboscis is extended, it can be easily seen that it is impossible to retract that organ by pulling it in bodily. When the proboscis is entirely retracted it forms a hollow tube, whose outer covering is the inside wall of the extended proboscis, and whose inner coat carries the hooks which now point forward. The whole tube lies in the proboscis sheath.

The manner of evertting and inverting the proboscis seems to be identical in all the *Trypanorhynchi*, both in the mature and later larval stages. The contractile bulbs and proboscis sheaths contain a transparent liquid, in which float a few granules. The contractile bulbs act on the contained fluid exactly as the bulb of a syringe. The thick walls of the bulbs are composed of diagonal, interlacing fibers, whose contraction compresses the bulb and forces the fluid out into the proboscis sheath. The result of this action is to make the proboscis begin to unroll from the anterior end of the sheath. This will continue as long as the walls of the contractile bulbs continue to exert pressure on the fluid contents, or until the proboscis is entirely everted. When the proboscis is fully extended the granular liquid can be seen filling the interior of both proboscis sheath and proboscis. To the interior of the proboscis, at the anterior end, is attached a tubular cord of very contractile tissue, which lies in the hollow of the proboscis, extends back through the sheath, and is inserted at one side on the inner wall of the contractile bulb. The proboscis is inverted by the contraction of this cord. When the proboscis is inverted this cord lies in kinks and irregular coils in the contractile bulb and posterior end of the sheath. This movement is made rather quickly by the living worm. Upon removing some specimens from the pylorus of a Dusky Shark, it was noticed that when the heads were touched by the point of a scalpel or needle, even when the head was partly imbedded in the mucous membrane, the proboscides would be suddenly retracted and the worm detached.

Larval state.—Great numbers of encysted *Rhynchobothria* were found, mostly in capsules, between the mucous and submucous coats of the stomach of the Squeteague (*Cynoscion regale*) and the Bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*), which appear to be the young form of this species. The proboscides and their hooks agree. The bothria and their lobes seem to be identical. The sequence from these fishes to the Dusky Shark is a natural one, and in the absence of any evidence to the contrary it may be fairly assumed that they are the encysted larvæ of *R. bisulcatum*. It is the purpose of the author to publish figures and a fuller description of these in a subsequent paper.

Habitat.—*Sirobile*: Dusky Shark (*Carcharias obscurus*); pylorus and intestine; very abundant.

Scolex encysted: Squeteague (*Cynoscion regule*), Bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*); submucous coat of stomach and peritoneum; very abundant. Wood's Holl, Mass., August.

This worm resembles *R. paleaceum* Rudolphi and Van Beneden. (Dies., Revis. d. Ceph. Ab. Par., p. 294.)

Tetrarhynchus lingualis Van Beneden (Les Vers Cestoides, p. 151, tab. xvii, 4, 6-9). It presents many differences from Van Beneden's figures and descriptions, however, among which may be mentioned here, as of most importance, the number and form of the hooks, the articulation of the neck with the body, and the position of the male genital openings. Van Beneden represents the latter in *R. paleaceum* as always opening at the posterior third of the segments. In all of the different forms of *R. bisulcatum* they open uniformly near or in front of the anterior third.

Rhynchobothrium tenuicolle Rudolphi.

[Plate V, Figs. 17, 18.]

Tetrarhynchus tenuicollis Rud., Synops., 130 and 451. Creplin, Ersch. and Grub. Encycl., xxxii, 295, note 34, and Erichson's Arch., 1846, 149. Dujardin, Hist. Nat. des Helminth., 551.

Rhynchobothrium tenuicolle Diesing, Sitzungsb., xiii, 1854, 595; and Revis. der Ceph. Ab. Par., 299.

Tetrarhynchus corollatus Siebold, Zeitsch. für Wissenschaft. Zoöl., ii, 241 (in part).

The characters given for this species by Diesing are the following: Head with suborbicular lateral bothria, converging at the apex and with an elevated border; neck very long, subcylindrical, slender, rounded at the base; segments of the body bacilliform, ultimate ones contracted, easily falling off. Length of head and neck, 5.3^{mm} to 6.5^{mm}; length of body, 15^{mm} to 17^{mm}; breadth, 0.56^{mm}.

The proboscides for the larval condition are described as filiform, very slender, and armed with a long series of ternately verticillate and recurved hooks.

The published descriptions of this species are meager and unaccompanied with figures. It is with some hesitation, therefore, that I refer a few *Rhynchobothria* from the spiral valve of the Smooth Dogfish (*Mustelus canis*) to this species.

The head of the living worm is very variable in shape. The bothria are lateral and are united at the apex by their margins; usually broader than long, slightly emarginate on the posterior edge, with a raised and thickened border. The neck is long, cylindrical, the narrowest part about half way between the head and the contractile bulbs. There is a constriction immediately behind the contractile bulbs, back of which the neck swells into a nearly globular base. This rounded basal part of the neck is sharply marked off from the body by a short, narrow constriction. The body is without segments or transverse markings of any kind for a distance equal to as much as six times the length of the head and neck. Striae then begin, which outline squarish segments. The first segments are a little longer than broad; subsequently they become much longer than broad, crowded with ova, and with the genital apertures marginal. The four proboscis sheaths are long and thrown into spirals, the coils of the spirals being dense or loose, as the neck is contracted or not. The proboscides when everted are seen to be very long and slender. They are closely beset with small hooks, which, when highly magnified, are seen to be of several distinct shapes. The prevailing shape of those near the end of the proboscis is slender, tapering, somewhat irregular in outline, with an abruptly recurved short point. Others have the same length, but differ in being broader, and in having a curved, convex outline on the posterior edge. Others have the same outline, but are very short. Others are slender, curved slightly and pointed, but are without the abruptly recurved point. Some are straight, others nearly straight, but bent slightly about the middle. The hooks on the proboscides, moreover, are arranged in distinct series of ternate groups. This arrangement could be plainly distinguished in some places, while in others it was but faintly indicated, and, owing to the extreme smallness of the hooks and their peculiar shape, it was impossible, from the specimens at my disposal, to determine the exact number of series, or whether, indeed, all the hooks were arranged in these ternate groups or not. Where most distinct there seem to be four series of ternate hooks. The longer hooks stand nearly at right angles to the axis of the proboscis, and are equal in length to about one-third of the diameter of the proboscis.

The following measurements are from an alcoholic specimen :

	Millimeters.
Length of strobile.....	31.00
Length of bothria.....	0.42
Breadth of bothria.....	0.34
Length of head and neck.....	2.00
Length of proboscis sheath.....	1.40
Length of contractile bulbs.....	0.29
Breadth of contractile bulbs.....	0.10
Breadth of neck near head (lateral).....	0.24
Breadth of neck near middle (lateral).....	0.20
Breadth of neck in front of basal bulb	0.34

	Millimeters.
Breadth of basal bulb of neck	0.39
Breadth of constriction between neck and body	0.20
Breadth of body just behind basal bulb of neck	0.28
Breadth of body 7.4 ^{mm} from neck	0.28
Distance from neck to first striae	11.20
Distance from neck to first segment	14.60
Length of first segments indicated by striae	0.40
Breadth of first segments indicated by striae	0.44
Length of first distinct segments	0.94
Breadth of first distinct segments	0.44
Length of last segments	3.00
Breadth of last segments	0.80
Breadth of proboscis	0.33
Length of hooks	0.0075
Length of longest hooks	0.009

These worms are actively locomotile while living. The two bothria act as sucking disks and change their shape continuously. As the head progresses the anterior ends of the proboscis sheaths separate slightly, when the soft tissue which forms the anterior end of the head is then drawn in so as to give to the front of the head the shape of a hollow cup; the anterior ends of the sheaths then approach each other and the hollow cup disappears, the tissue which forms it being thrust out into a short, blunt eminence (*myzorhynchus*).

Habitat.—Smooth Dogfish (*Mustelus canis*), in spiral intestine. Wood's Holl, Mass., August, 1884.

Family TETRACOTYLEÆ *Diesing*.

TÆNIA Linn.

Tænia dilatata, sp. nov.

[Plate V, Figs. 14-16.]

Head small, truncate, or, in living specimens, slightly prominent in front. Acetabula nearly circular, directed a little forwards. Neck rugose, very long, very contractile and dilatable, narrow in front, tapering toward the head; a short distance back of the head expanding into a number of irregular, transparent, dilated folds, which border both sides of an opaque central portion, in which two longitudinal canals are faintly outlined. First segments about three times as broad as long; median segments square, or broader than long; ultimate segments nearly square, sometimes broader than long, sometimes longer than broad. Genital apertures marginal, opening a very little in front of the middle.

A single specimen of this species of *Tænia* was obtained from the intestine of the Common Eel (*Anguilla vulgaris*) August 26, 1885. The

length of the specimen, when stretched out by fastening one end with a needle to the bottom of the dissecting dish and removing all kinks and curves with a fine brush, was 170^{mm}. The length of the same specimen, after having been preserved in alcohol, is less than 90^{mm}. The specimen when first obtained and placed in sea-water was quite active. The body was constantly throwing itself into sinuous curves, while the head and neck were jerked from side to side with a moderately rapid motion. In addition to these movements the neck and anterior portions of the body constantly changed their shape by the inflation or dilatation of the investing membranes into wide transparent folds, constricted at irregular intervals by narrow transverse bands. The neck, meanwhile, was alternately stretched out and contracted like the body of a Nemertean. The anterior end of the head protruded into a proboscis-like papilla. The breadth of the head itself varied from 0.17^{mm} to 0.35^{mm}.

In the alcoholic specimen the dilatable folds of the neck are much contracted and broken. They lie in rough, ragged frills along each side of the dark central part of the strobile. The head is truncate or blunt in front. The neck immediately behind the sucking-disks is almost as wide as the head, flat, thin, and little, if at all, tapering.

The following measurements were made on the living specimen. The head and neck changed their position and shape so rapidly that it was with the greatest difficulty that trustworthy measurements could be made:

	Millimeters.
Breadth of head.....	0.28
Diameter of acetabula.....	0.12
Diameter of neck, narrowest part.....	0.20
Distance of first segments from head.....	17.00
Length of fourth segment from end of strobile.....	1.30
Breadth of same, posterior end.....	1.50
Breadth of same, anterior end.....	1.60
Length of posterior segment.....	0.90
Breadth of same, posterior end	0.60
Breadth of same, anterior end.....	1.25

Habitat.—Common Eel (*Anguilla vulgaris*); intestine; Wood's Holl, Mass., August 26, 1885; one specimen.

Von Linstow (Compend. der Helminth., 1878) records but two *Tanice* from the Common Eel, *T. macrocephala* Creplin and *T. hemispherica* Molin. *T. dilatata* is very different from the former. Diesing (Revis. der Ceph., Ab. Cycl., p. 378) mentions the latter, but gives no enumeration of characters. I do not have access to Molin's paper, and cannot, therefore, say whether *T. dilatata* is identical with his species or not. The peculiar inflated character of the neck suggests *T. ambigua* Dujardin, but the difference in size between the adult specimens is alone sufficient to render their union in the same species impossible.

ORDER ACANTHOCEPHALA Rudolphi.

ECHINORHYNCHIUS Zoega.

Echinorhynchus agilis Rudolphi.

[Plate V, Figs. 1-6.]

E. agilis Rudolphi, Synopsis, 67 and 316. Westrumb, Acanthoceph., 17, tab. i, 1. Bremser, Icon. Helminth., tab. vi, 9-10. Dujardin, Hist. Nat. des Helminth., 535. Diesing, Syst. Helminth., ii, 35, and Revis. der Rhyngod., 746. Molin, in Sitzungsb. d. Kais. Akad. d. Wissensch., xxx, 142.

Color white. Proboscis clavate, very short, nearly globose, armed with three, sometimes apparently only two, series of hooks, about six in each series. Hooks in front row three or four times as long as those in second and third rows, each with a long, flat basal support. Front hooks sharply recurved, with recurved part long, pointed, and often slightly concave on the outer edge. Remaining hooks very small, slender, slightly bent, sometimes standing out nearly at right angles to the axis of the proboscis, when the latter is exserted. Anterior part of the body slightly contracted and capable of introversion along with the proboscis, thus forming a short, transversely plicate neck. Body arcuate, club-shaped, cylindrical, transversely rugose, widest a little in front of the anterior third, narrowing rapidly in front and diminishing uniformly but very gradually to the posterior end, which is truncate. Proboscis sheath rather short, manubriform; proboscis and sheath often found retracted by an invagination of the anterior body wall. Lemnisci usually long, slender, attenuate posteriorly, longer proportionally in male than in female. Testes three-lobed, followed by an oval opaque mass. Male genitalia posteriorly continued into a cup-shaped copulatory organ, which is capable of eversion and inversion.

Females 9^{mm} to 12^{mm} in length; males 4.6^{mm} to 6.44^{mm}.

When subjected to the action of the compressor a series of oval and circular cavities becomes visible in the inner coat of the body wall. These are evidently the channels of the vascular system seen in section. At intervals, however, there are large circular spaces in this vascular layer clearly defined by a circular thickened ring of connective tissue. These become so much enlarged in some as to be visible with a comparatively low magnifying power, and give rise to small mammillary elevations in the superficial layer of the body wall. These are evidently the "pores" or "orbicular disks" given as specific characters of *E. tuberosus* (Dujardin, Nat. Hist. Helminth., p. 538). They are described as usually numbering five or six on the convex side and a single one on the concave side. In the specimens which I have examined there does not appear to be either this regularity or proportion in their arrangement, e. g., one specimen had four on the concave side and two on the

convex. In others they could not all be made out definitely, but enough could be made out to show that they were irregularly placed.

Habitat.—Common Eel (*Anguilla vulgaris*); intestine; 12 specimens, ♂ and ♀; September 2, 1885. Dusky Shark (*Carcharias obscurus*); 1 specimen, ♂; August, 1884. Wood's Holl, Mass.

Of the following specimens of which measurements were made, No. 1 is a female, Nos. 2 and 3 are males. No. 3 is the specimen obtained from the spiral intestine of *C. obscurus*:

Dimensions.	No. 1, ♀	No. 2, ♂	No. 3, ♂
Length of specimen.....	mm. 9.50	mm. 6.44	mm. 4.60
Length of proboscis.....	0.17	0.105	0.16
Breadth of proboscis, apex.....	0.17	0.14	0.162
Breadth of proboscis, base.....	0.15	0.12	0.132
Length of proboscis sheath.....	0.46		0.30
Breadth of proboscis sheath.....			0.12
Length of lemnisci.....	1.50	1.50	1.40
Breadth of body, anterior.....			0.19
Breadth of body, greatest.....			0.50
Breadth of body, posterior end.....			0.16

	Millimeters.
Length of hooks in front row.....	{ 0.084 0.090
Length of hooks in second row.....	0.023
Length of recurved part of front hooks.....	0.061
Length of ova.....	0.035
Breadth of ova.....	0.017

Length of ovarian masses much greater than ova, circular and oval, with diameters as much as 0.1^{mm}, others as low as 0.04^{mm}.

I confess no small degree of perplexity in identifying this species as *E. agilis*. The arrangement and character of the hooks of the proboscis ally it closely with this species and a little less closely with *E. claviceps* Zeder. The lemnisci are not so long in proportion to the length of the animal as in either of the above-named species. This is about the only character that hints at a probable specific difference which is sufficient to justify the separation of the specimens under consideration from either of the above species. The presence or absence of the so-called neck is rather a doubtful feature at best.

While there are no distinctive characters which seem to my mind to be important enough to justify the erection of a new species, there are certainly strong reasons afforded for uniting *E. claviceps* and *E. tuberosus*, which is, indeed, proposed by Dujardin (op. cit., p. 538) and accepted by Diesing, who does not mention *E. claviceps* in his revision, and including both under *E. agilis* Rudolphi.

In the absence of figures of these species I must content myself at present with referring these specimens to *E. agilis*.

With regard to the single specimen found in the spiral valve of *Carcharias obscurus*, it may be well to observe that its presence there may be accounted for by supposing it to have been introduced in the adult

condition along with some more usual host which had been eaten by the shark a short time before the latter was examined. However interesting this supposition may be, it is hardly necessary, as there is no reason why *C. obscurus* should not be a proper host of *E. agilis*.

Echinorhynchus acus Rudolphi.

[Plate V, Figs. 7-13.]

Rudolphi, Wiedmann's Archiv., ii, 2, 51; Entoz. Hist., ii, 279; Synops., 71 and 324. Zeder, Naturg., 150. Westrumb, Acanthoceph., 24. Siebold, in Burdach's Physiol., 2, Aufl., ii, 196 (ovula). Drummond, Charlsworth's Mag. of Nat. Hist., ii, 516. Bellingham, in Annals of Nat. Hist., xiii, 256. Dujardin, Hist. Nat. des Helminth., 540. Creplin, Nov. Obs., 43, and in Ersch. and Grub. Encyclop., xxxii, 284. Leidy, in Proceed. Acad. Phila., viii, 48. Van Beneden, Mem. Vers. Intest., 279-287 (development).

For detailed synonymy and habitats, see Diesing, Syst. Helm., ii, 39-40, and Revis. d. Rhyngodeen, 747.

Proboscis linear with about twenty series of hooks; neck none; body long, greatest width a short distance back of proboscis, subattenuate posteriorly, bluntly rounded at posterior end. Length 27 to 81^{mm} (Dujardin), breadth 2^{mm}; males half as long as females; color usually white.

"The color is very various but generally white when distended, though frequently accompanied at the same time by a tinge of orange, pink, or cinereous. Sometimes the whole animal is reddish orange (especially the male), and sometimes the whole is ivory white with a solitary minute crimson dot here and there" (Drummond).

Some specimens flat, thin, with regular outline, others cylindrical with irregular transverse rugæ. All the specimens noted by me were white or faintly tinged with yellow.

The following measurements were made on alcoholic specimens:

Dimensions.	No. 1, ♀	No. 2, ♀	No. 3, ♂
Length of specimen	46.00	45.00	20.00
Length of proboscis	1.04	1.06	0.96
Breadth of proboscis	0.28	0.32	0.28
Length of proboscis sheath	1.44	1.60	1.40
Breadth of proboscis sheath	0.36	0.36	0.36
Breadth of body, anterior	0.75	0.80	0.00
Breadth of body, antero-median	2.00	1.60	1.20
Breadth of body, near posterior end	0.60	1.10	0.60

Length of longest living specimen, 60^{mm}.

Dimensions.	Millimeters.	Millimeters.	Millimeters.
Longest diameter of ovarian masses	0.11	0.07	0.08
Shortest diameter of ovarian masses	0.075	0.05	0.07
Length of ova	0.13	0.114	0.112
Breadth of ova	0.03	0.055	0.023
Length of embryo	0.098	0.08	0.076
Breadth of embryo	0.017	0.018	0.015

Length of hooks, 0.064^{mm}; breadth of same at base, 0.02^{mm}.

The proboscis, when fully extended, stands a little obliquely to the axis of the body. In all the specimens that I have seen the proboscis was either wholly extended or partly withdrawn bodily. In no case was the proboscis inverted. These worms are able not only to withdraw and to protrude the proboscis as a whole, but also to invert and evert it. When the proboscis is retracted in mass the walls of the body at the base of the proboscis are invaginated by the action of retractor muscles, which are attached to the base of the sheath and inserted on the median parietes of the body. When thus retracted the proboscis lies as a rigid cylindrical rod inclosed in a pouch made by the invaginated anterior end of the body (Fig. 12).

The protrusion of the proboscis seems to be effected by the propulsive force exerted by the fluid contents of the body cavity when forced forward by muscular contraction of the body-wall. A retractor muscle, or ligament, was traced from the interior of the proboscis sheath to the apex of the proboscis. Inversion of the proboscis itself is effected by this ligament, while eversion is produced by the action of the thick, muscular walls of the sheath upon a granular fluid which it contains. The hooks of the proboscis are arranged in quincunx order, thus giving rise to rows parallel with the long axis of the proboscis, and also to spiral rows. The body cavities of the females were crowded with myriads of eggs. These were long-oval and each contained a fusiform embryo. The outer covering of the ova is a delicate but rather thick, transparent membrane. Within this and immediately surrounding the embryo is a thin but dense coat, which is much compressed at one end so as to look like a loop, slightly compressed at the other. The embryo in most of the ova had not developed sufficiently to indicate more than a fusiform, granular mass lying within the dense hyaline inner coat of the ovum.

The spherical ovarian masses were in different stages of progress, some having simple granular contents, others having secondary masses within them, while in others oblong bodies, apparently young embryos or the beginnings of ova, could be distinctly seen.

Habitat.—Flat Fish (*Pseudopleuronectes americanus*), in intestine; eight specimens. Wood's Holl, Mass., September, 1884.

Echinorhynchus sagittifer, sp. nov.

[Plate VI, Figs. 1-2.]

This worm was found in the peritoneum of several species of fish. Although no adult specimens were found, the form of the immature specimens is so different from that of any adult *Acanthocephala* with which I am acquainted, and the structure and arrangement of the spines are so remarkable, that I propose the name *E. sagittifer* for it. Of course it is possible that it may subsequently be identified as the young

of some form already described, as the spines of the body are probably shed in the course of its further development.

The proboscis is clavate, bluntly rounded in front, increasing slightly for a short distance back, and then narrowing gradually to the base, thickly beset with recurved hooks, of which there are about twenty series, counting from base to apex, and about fifteen visible in the longest spiral; proboscis eversible; neck short, unarmed; body always curved, anteriorly armed with sagittate spines, thus forming an armed collar back of the neck, the spines of which are arranged in about eight transverse rows, but placed a little irregularly. A short distance back of this spiny collar is a transverse row of sagittate spines, which are placed on the inner (ventral) part of the curve, and extend up each side nearly to the outer (dorsal) edge. Following this row are about twenty other rows of similar spines, similarly placed, except that none of them contains as many spines, and hence is not as long as the first row. The first eight or ten rows do not differ much in length nor in the number of spines; posteriorly the rows become shorter and shorter until the last, in which the spines are few and hard to distinguish. The body increases in size for some distance back of the neck, attains its greatest dimensions about the anterior third, and diminishes uniformly to the posterior end, which is in some slightly enlarged, ending in a bluntly rounded point.

These worms were all found in the body cavity of their host, coiled up and lodged in the serous coat of the intestine or stomach, or in the mesentery. When found they usually had the proboscis inverted, but everted it, in whole or in part, when immersed in alcohol or when placed under the compressor. They were surrounded by a thin investing membrane, which was of the nature of a cyst, while at the same time it appeared to belong to the worm. They were uniformly coiled in a curved or lunate shape, with the rows of spines on the concave side. The body is much roughened by transverse wrinkles or creases, especially towards the posterior end.

The branching vascular system characteristic of this order is clearly defined. If the plane in which the curved animal lies be called a dorso-ventral one, then the principal vessels of the vascular system are lateral.

The sexual characters were already plainly distinguishable. In one specimen two oval masses suspended from the base of the proboscis sheath were identified as the beginning testes. These were oval, granular bodies, the first 1.16^{mm} back of the proboscis sheath, and the second 0.34^{mm} farther back; length of each 0.164^{mm} ; breadth 0.127^{mm} . They lay in the ribbon-like band or tube which in all the specimens depended from the base of the sheath, and which doubtless represents the suspensory ligament. Behind the anterior oval body lay a cluster of spherical nucleated cells. The genitalia, in this specimen, ended in a campanulate expansion, at the base of which a small pointed body was

recognized, which was probably the spiculum. This enlargement of the genital apparatus opened into a larger oval cavity in the extreme posterior end of the body. This was evidently the male bursa, but was still closed by the investing body-membrane.

In some specimens which had been stained and mounted in glycerine, bodies which looked like the lemnisci were discovered. These were paired organs, very long and slender, tapering gradually to near the posterior end, which was bluntly rounded. Their attachment was at the base of the proboscis sheath. In one specimen the attachment was by a short ligament. The general appearance of these organs was much like that of the lemnisci of *E. agilis*, but their attachment at the base of the sheath, instead of near the base of the proboscis, makes their identification as lemnisci doubtful.

In a series of thin longitudinal sections made from one of these worms a cluster of spherical, granular masses was found lying just back of the base of the proboscis sheath and apparently supported by the suspensory ligament. These masses were each about 0.025^{mm} in diameter, and each contained a number of smaller cells. It is probable that these represent the early stages of the ovarian masses peculiar to this order.

The proboscis sheath is thick-walled and made up of two layers, the outer dense, about 0.03^{mm} thick; the inner loose in texture and 0.032^{mm} thick. From the base to about the middle of the sheath these layers are close together; from that point to the base of the proboscis they separate slightly, but unite again at the base of the proboscis. A retractile ligament extends from the proboscis back through the neck, where it divides into two branches, which continue to the base of the sheath, where they are attached. The sheath extends to the third or fourth row of ventral spines.

An oblong granular mass was noted about the middle of the proboscis, seen in a thin section, and on its inner wall. A round granular mass about 0.07^{mm} in diameter was seen near the base of the neck in one section. I could find no indication of a ganglion in the base of the proboscis sheath.

Measurements of mounted specimens.

Dimensions.	No. 1.	No. 2.	No. 3.	No. 4.
	mm.	mm.	mm.	mm.
Length of specimen	6.40	7.80	9.20	8.20
Length of proboscis	1.20	0.90	—	1.20
Breadth of proboscis near apex	0.44	0.48	0.52	0.46
Breadth of proboscis at base	0.26	0.32	0.46	0.36
Breadth of body at anterior	—	0.50	—	—
Breadth of body at median	0.54	0.92	0.74	0.80
Breadth of body at posterior	0.30	0.46	0.40	0.40
Length of proboscis sheath	—	1.80	—	—
Length of neck	—	—	—	0.36
Number of rows of spines on body	21	—	—	18

Nos. 1 and 2 were from *Cynoscion regale*, No. 3 from *Pomatomus saltatrix*, and No. 4 from *Paralichthys dentatus*.

The length of the larger hooks on the proboscis is about 0.08^{mm}; of the spines on the collar from 0.05^{mm} to 0.06^{mm}; of the spines in the ventral rows from 0.06^{mm} to 0.07^{mm}.

In specimen No. 1, of which measurements are given above, the number of spines visible on side in the first ventral row was 24; the number visible on one side in the second to the twenty-first rows, respectively: 16, 13, 13, 16, 17, 13, 13, 12, 12, 10, 11, 12, 11, 9, 9, 9, 8, 7, 10, 6.

Habitat.—Common Flounder (*Paralichthys dentatus*), Squeteague (*Cynoscion regale*), Bluefish (*Pomatomus saltatrix*). In peritoneum and mesentery. Wood's Holl, Mass., July and August, 1884-'85.

Echinorhynchus proteus Westrum.

[Plate VI, Figs. 3-5.]

Dujardin, Hist. Nat. des Helminth., p. 529. Molin, in Sitzungsb. d. Kais. Akad. d. Wissensch., xxx, 143, and xxxiii, 295. Leidy, Proceed. Acad. Phila., v, 208, and viii, 48. Greef, Wiegmann's Archiv, i, 361-375, tab. vi. Pagenstecher, Z. f. w. Z., xiii, 413, tab. xxiii-xxiv. Leuckart, Mensch. Paras., ii, 785-817. Molin, Denksch. d. K. Akad., xix, 272-3, tab. ix, fig. 2-3.

For detailed synonymy and habitats see Diesing, Systema Helminth., ii, 51-53, and Revis. der Rhyng., 754.

Proboscis cylindrical or often subclavate, with about 6 to 8 longitudinal series of recurved hooks visible on one side, 12 to 20 in each series. Median and anterior hooks flat and thin, postero-median and posterior, slender. A thin-walled, spherical bulla immediately back of the proboscis, followed by a long, slender, cylindrical neck. Body fusiform, slightly swollen and rounded anteriorly, obtusely rounded posteriorly; color varying from light lemon-yellow to orange. Length, 15^{mm} to 23^{mm}.

Measurements of a living specimen.

	Millimeters.
Length of specimen	23.00
Length of proboscis	0.75
Diameter of bulla	1.75
Length of neck	4.50
Length of body	16.00
Diameter of body, anterior	2.00
Diameter of body, posterior end	0.77
Diameter of neck, median	0.25
Diameter of proboscis, anterior	0.17
Diameter of proboscis, median	0.31

These parasites were found in great numbers attached to the inner wall of the large intestine of the Striped Bass (*Morone lineatus*). They differ from most intestinal parasites in being highly colored. While the prevailing color is orange of different shades, many were observed which were a light lemon-yellow, and others intermediate between these colors.

The presence of these parasites in considerable numbers must be injurious to the host, since they are always firmly attached and usually cause much local inflammation. In many cases the proboscis was found to have penetrated the walls of the intestine and to be protruding into the body cavity. In most instances of this kind it was surrounded by an abnormal secretion from the tissues of its host. This secretion is of a dark-brown, cinnamon-brown, or amber color. In many cases the proboscides were found to have become nuclei, around which were formed, in concentric layers, calculi of this abnormal deposition. The whole is further inclosed in a thickened cyst composed of two or three layers of connective tissue over which is thrown a thin outer covering of peritoneum. A cluster of these encysted calculi, lying in the peritoneum of the large intestine of a specimen of Striped Bass (*Roccus lineatus*), is shown in Fig. 5; one of the cysts opened, in Fig. 5a; and a cross-section of a calculus removed from its cyst in Fig. 5b. The diameter of one of the largest cysts was 18^{mm}. In the calculus figured the diameter is 15^{mm}. The color on the surface is, when the calculus is placed in alcohol, a beautiful rich golden-brown with a silvery luster. The surface is uneven, with little irregular rounded or mammillary eminences. The nucleus is irregularly linear, 1½ to 2^{mm} in length. The inner layers are thin, irregularly concentric and darker in color than the outer layers. Outside of this central, dark portion is a lighter ring about 2½^{mm} thick and made up of a great many thin, concentric layers. This lighter portion is sharply marked off from the remaining outer part of the calculus, separates from it easily, and can be removed from the half-calculus, as one cupel can be taken out of a nest made up of graded sizes. The outer ring is about 3^{mm} thick, is a little darker than the middle ring, but, like it, is made up of a number of thin, concentric layers. The layers of the two outer rings are more regularly concentric than those of the inner portion. The color of the cut part of the calculus is a little darker than that of the surface, and the luster is waxy. A piece of one of these secretions burned readily and left a small quantity of ash which was composed largely of calcium carbonate. In one, from which the alcohol had evaporated, crystals were noticed which had the general habit and appearance of those of oxalate of urea.

Alcoholic specimens are uniformly white in color.

Habitat.—Striped Bass (*Roccus lineatus*); large intestine; Wood's Holl, Mass., August and September, 1884-'85.

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List of Entozoa described in this paper, with their hosts.

Entozoa.	Host.	Page.	Plate.	Figures.
1. <i>Dibothrium manubriiforme</i> sp. nov	Spear Fish (<i>Tetrapturus albidus</i>).	4	I	1-4
2. <i>Dibothrium alutaceum</i> sp. nov	File Fish (<i>Alutera Schaeppii</i>)	6	I	5-8
3. <i>Echeneibothrium variable</i> Van Beneden	Common Skato (<i>Raja erinacea</i>)	8	I	9-13
4. <i>Spongibothrium variable</i> gen. et sp. nov	Sting Ray (<i>Trygon centrata</i>)	10	II	13-19
5. <i>Phyllobothrium thysanocephalum</i> sp. nov	Tiger Shark (<i>Galeocerdo tigrinus</i>)	12	II	1-12
6. <i>Orygmatobothrium angustum</i> sp. nov	Dusky Shark (<i>Carcharias obscurus</i>)	16	III	1-3
7. <i>Crossobothrium laciniatum</i> gen. et sp. nov	Sand Shark (<i>Odontaspis littoralis</i>)	18	III	4-18
8. <i>Phoreiobothrium lasium</i> gen. et sp. nov	Dusky Shark (<i>Carcharias obscurus</i>)	22	IV	24-29
9. <i>Calliobothrium verticillatum</i> Rudolphi	Smooth Dogfish (<i>Mustelus canis</i>)	24	IV	1-8
10. <i>Rhynchobothrium bisulcatum</i> sp. nov	Dusky Shark (<i>Oarcharias obscurus</i>)	27	IV	9-23
11. <i>Rhynchobothrium tenuicolle</i> Rudolphi	Smooth Dogfish (<i>Mustelus canis</i>)	34	V	17-18
12. <i>Tenia dilatata</i> sp. nov	Common Eel (<i>Anguilla vulgaris</i>)	36	V	14-16
13. <i>Echinorhynchus agilis</i> Rudolphi	<i>Anguilla vulgaris</i> and <i>Carcharias obscurus</i>	38	V	1-6
14. <i>Echinorhynchus acus</i> Rudolphi	Flat Fish (<i>Pseudopleuronectes americanus</i>)	40	V	7-13
15. <i>Echinorhynchus sagittifer</i> sp. nov	Common Flounder (<i>Paralichthys dentatus</i>), Squeteague (<i>Cynoscion regale</i>), and Bluefish (<i>Pomatomus saltatrix</i>)	41	VI	1-2
16. <i>Echinorhynchus proteus</i> Westrumb	Striped Bass (<i>Roccus lineatus</i>)	44	VI	3-5
17. Embryo <i>Tetrabothria</i>	Squeteague (<i>Cynoscion regale</i>) ..	1	VI	6-9

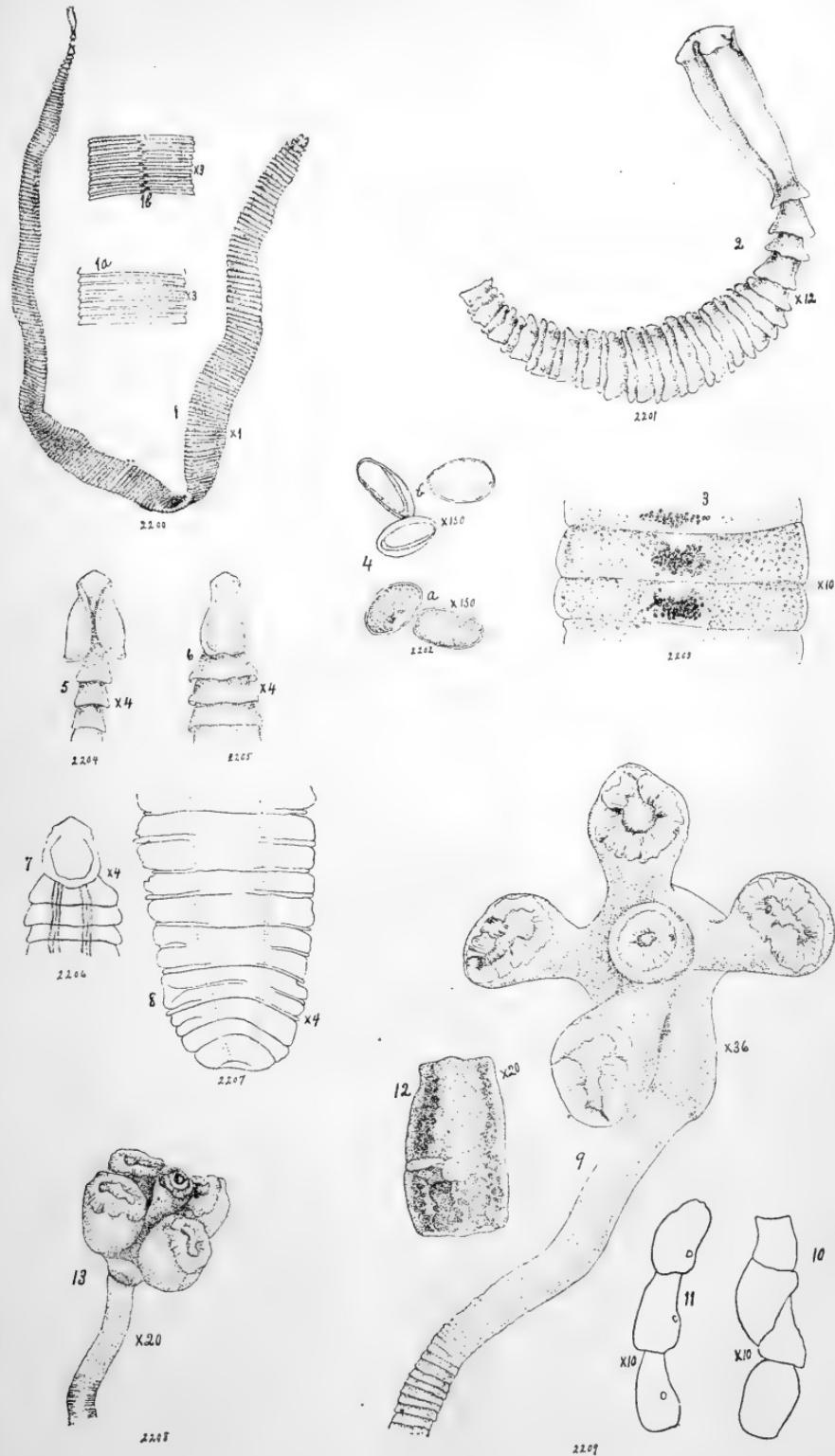
WASHINGTON AND JEFFERSON COLLEGE,
Washington, Pa., June 1, 1886.

EXPLANATION OF PLATE I.

- FIG. 1. *Dibothrium manubriforme* sp. nov. Adult strobile, natural size.
FIG. 1a. Median segments of same, enlarged 3 diameters.
FIG. 1b. The same, opposite side, showing genital openings, enlarged 3 diameters.
FIG. 2. Head and anterior segments of young specimen, enlarged 12 diameters.
FIG. 3. Posterior segments of adult, enlarged 10 diameters.
FIG. 4. Ova. *a*, ova with white opaque shell; *b*, ova with thin transparent shell, enlarged 150 diameters.
FIG. 5. *Dibothrium aluteræ* sp. nov. Head and anterior segments, marginal view, enlarged 4 diameters.
FIG. 6. Lateral view of same specimen, enlarged 4 diameters; length of specimen 27mm.
FIG. 7. Lateral view of head of another specimen, enlarged 4 diameters; bothria contracted and concave.
FIG. 8. Posterior end of same specimen, enlarged 4 diameters; length of specimen 76mm.
FIG. 9. *Echeneibothrium variabile* Van Beneden. Front view of head as seen in living specimens, when the sucking disks are applied to the under surface of the cover-glass, enlarged 36 diameters.
FIG. 10. Outline of median, irregular segments, enlarged 10 diameters.
FIG. 11. Outline of other segments farther back, showing position of genital aperture, enlarged 10 diameters.
FIG. 12. One of the same, compressed, showing the genitalia, enlarged 20 diameters.
FIG. 13. Lateral view of head, alcoholic specimen, enlarged 20 diameters.

Figures 1, 2, and 9 from life; others from alcoholic and mounted specimens.

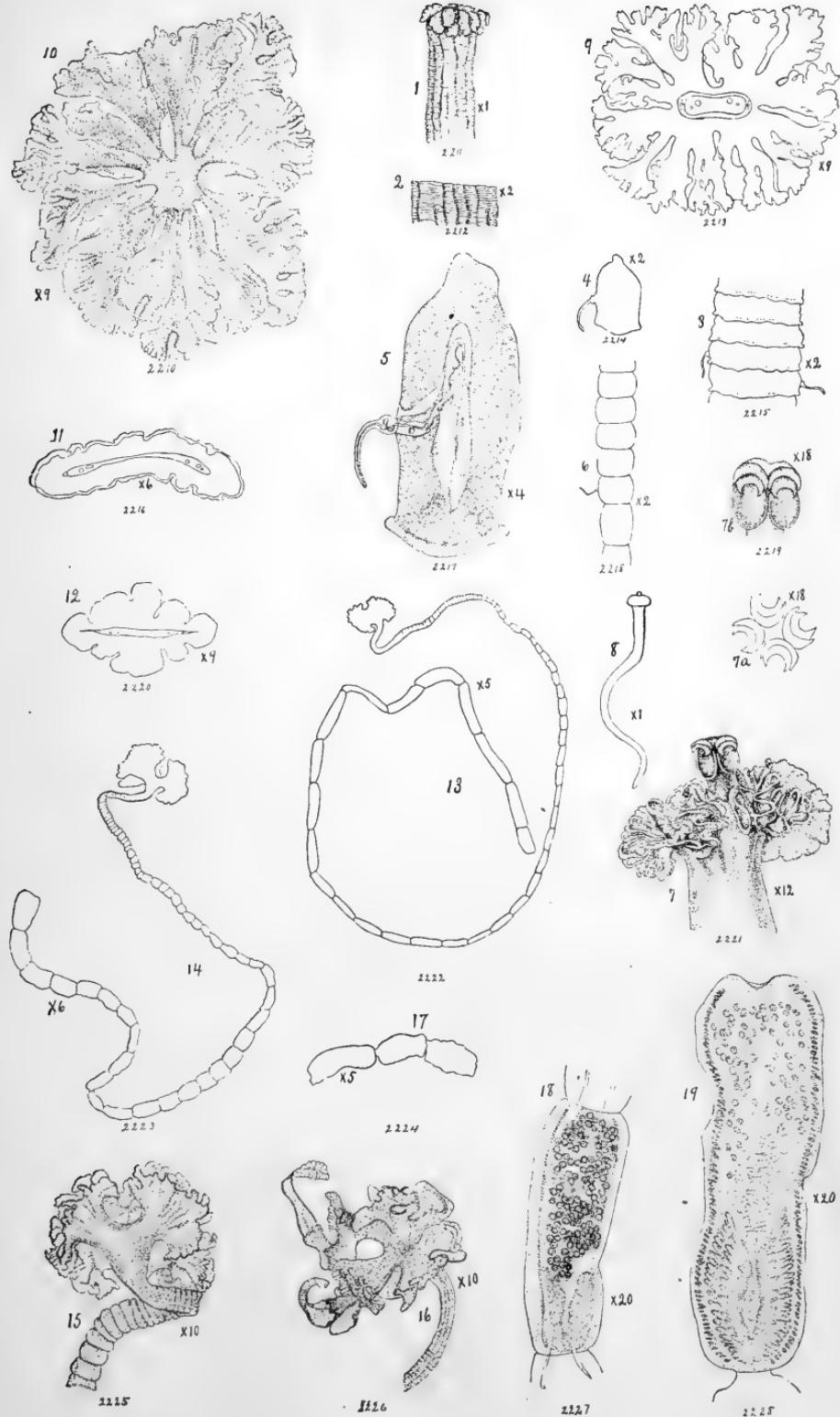
All figures made by Mrs. Edwin Linton.

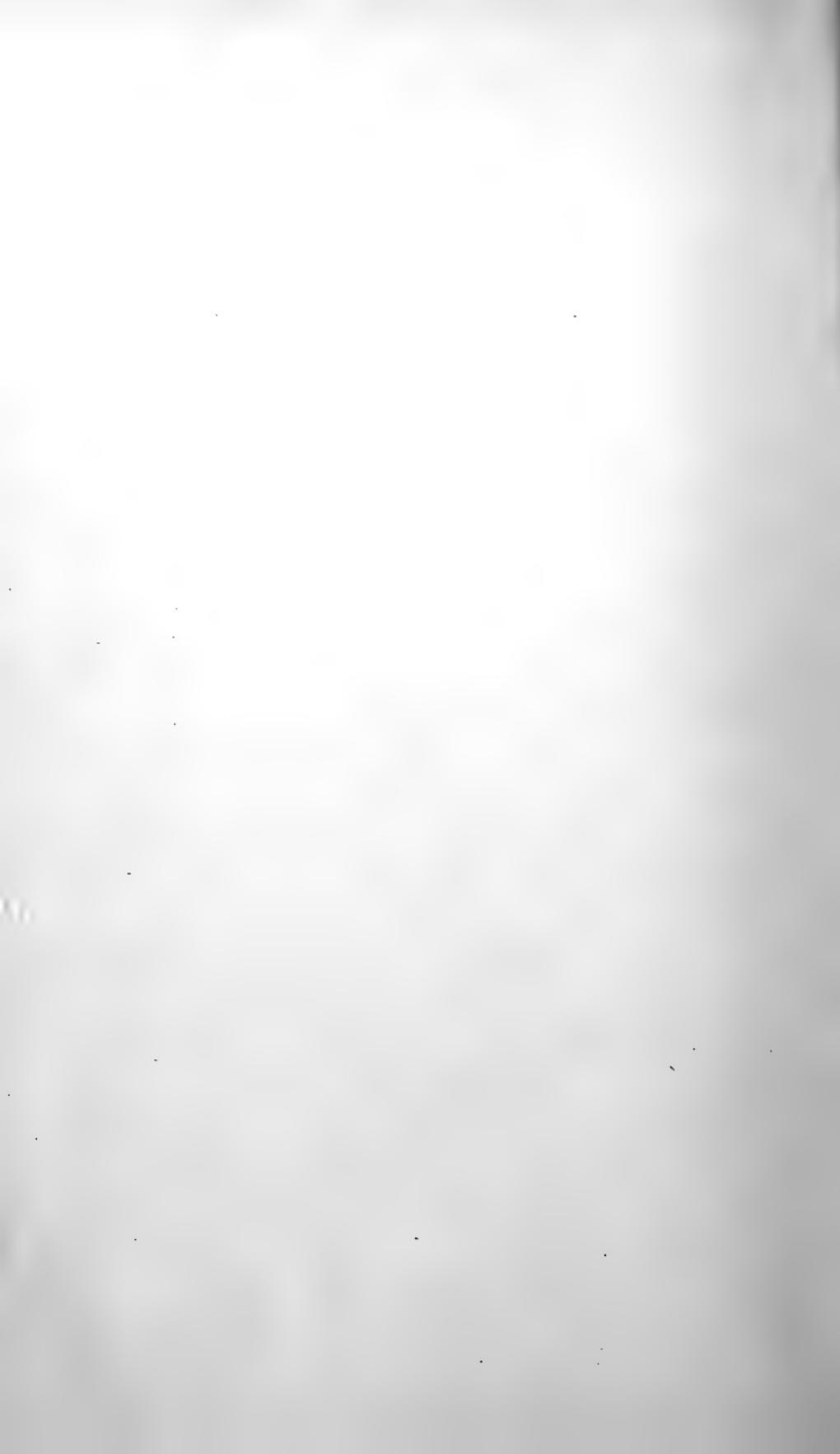


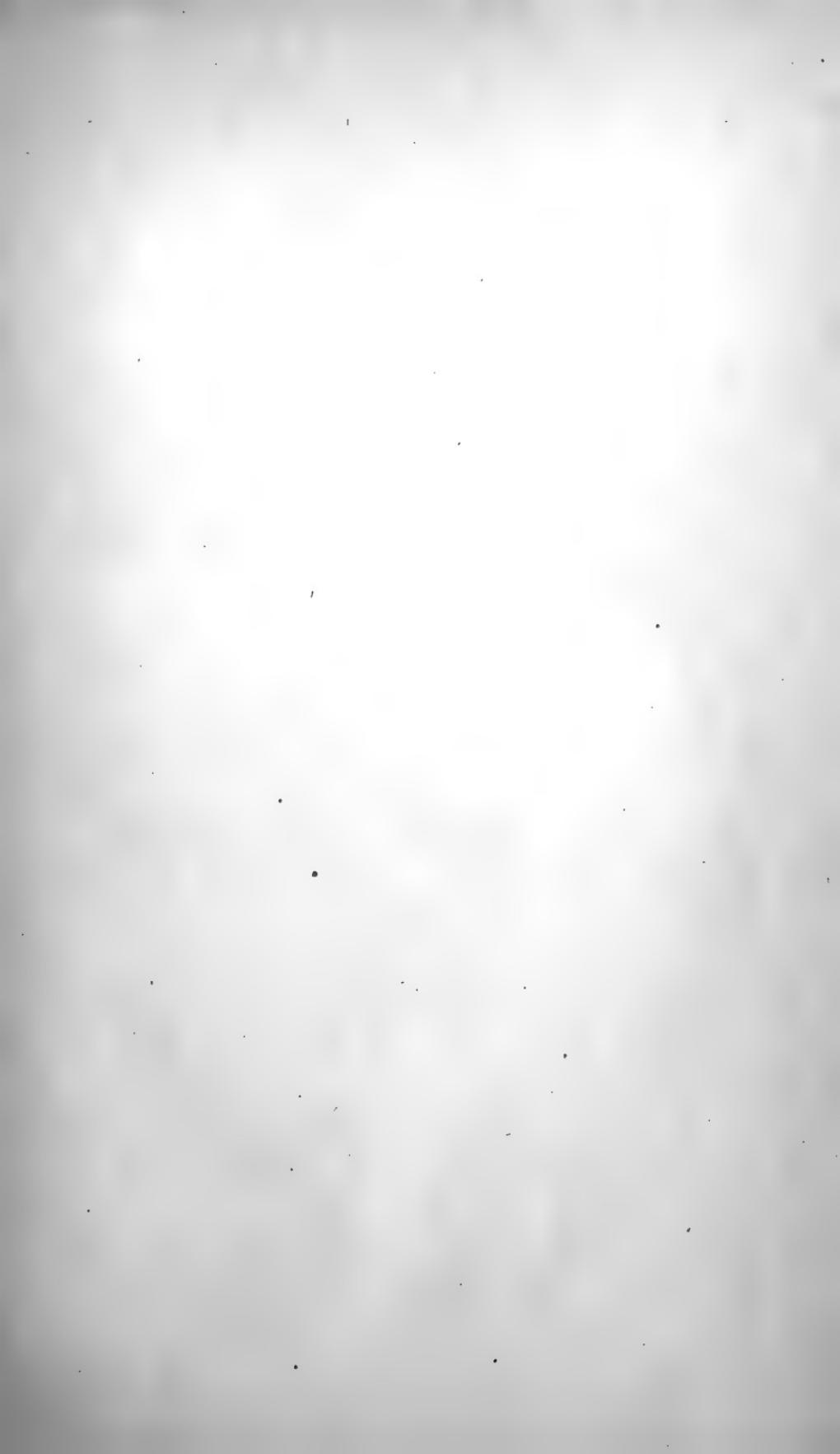
EXPLANATION OF PLATE II.

- FIG. 1. *Phyllobothrium thysanocephalum* sp. nov. Head and part of neck of adult, natural size, length of specimen 1 meter.
- FIG. 2. Part of body of same, showing the beginning segments, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 3. Segments near posterior end of adult, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 4. Mature free proglottis, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 5. Mature free proglottis, flattened under compressor, enlarged 4 diameters.
- FIG. 6. Posterior segments of a specimen measuring 290^{mm} in length, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 7. Head and neck of young specimen, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 7a. Front view of rostellum, enlarged 18 diameters.
- FIG. 7b. Side view of same, enlarged 18 diameters.
- FIG. 8. Young specimen, natural size.
- FIG. 9. Transverse section through middle of head of a young specimen, length 58^{mm}, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 10. Transverse section through anterior third of head of adult, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 11. Transverse section through neck a short distance back of head, adult, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 12. Transverse section through neck of young, near the head, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 13. *Spongibothrium variabile* gen. et sp. nov., outline of strobile with regular slender segments, enlarged 5 diameters.
- FIG. 14. Outline of another specimen with shorter and more irregular segments, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 15. Side view of head, neck, and anterior segments, edges of bothria contracted, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 16. Front view of head of another specimen, with two bothria expanded, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 17. Three mature segments, enlarged 5 diameters.
- FIG. 18. Median segment, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 19. Mature segment, enlarged 20 diameters.

Figures 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, and 15 from life; others from alcoholic and mounted specimens.
All figures made by Mrs. Edwin Linton.





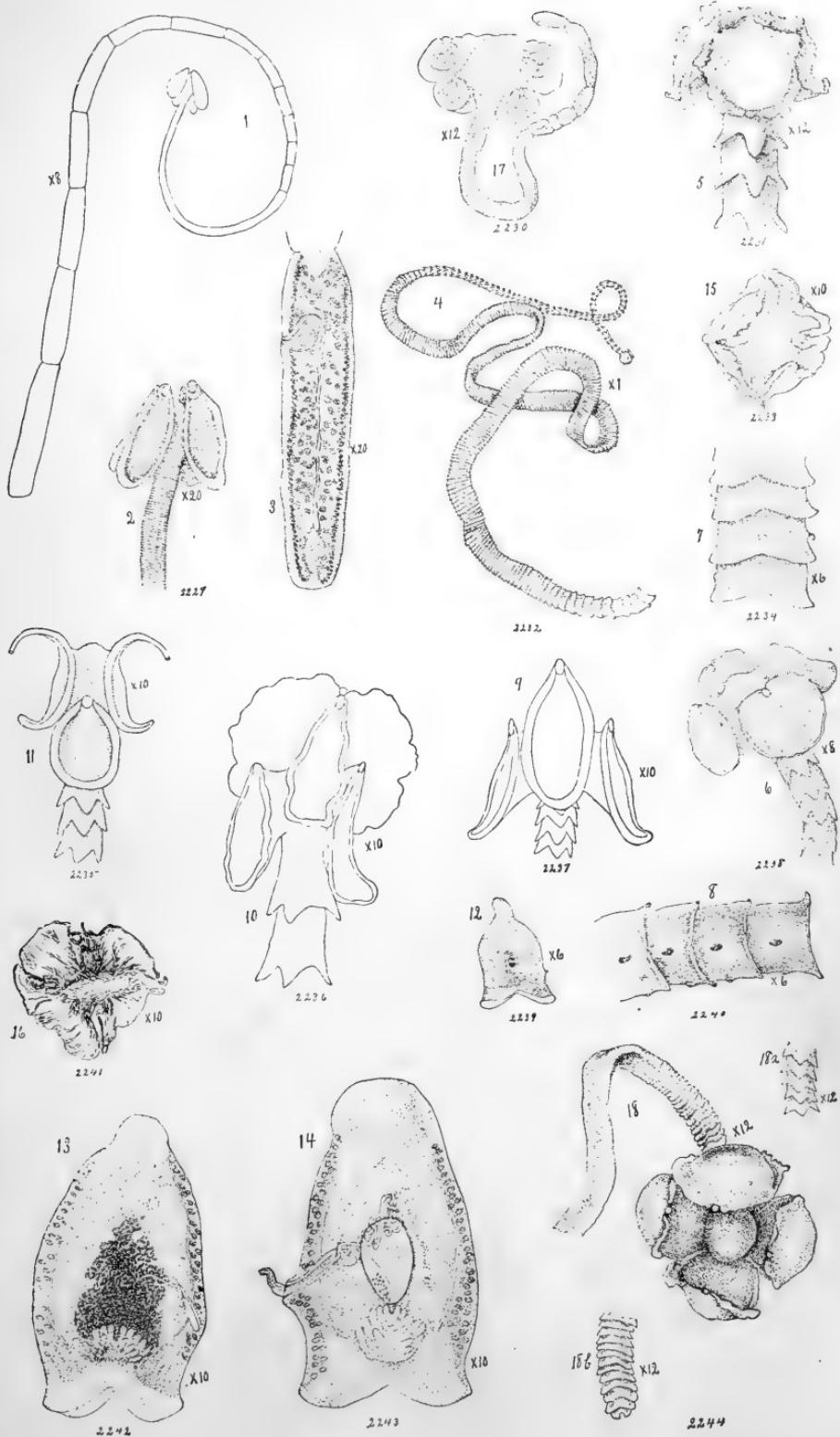


EXPLANATION OF PLATE III.

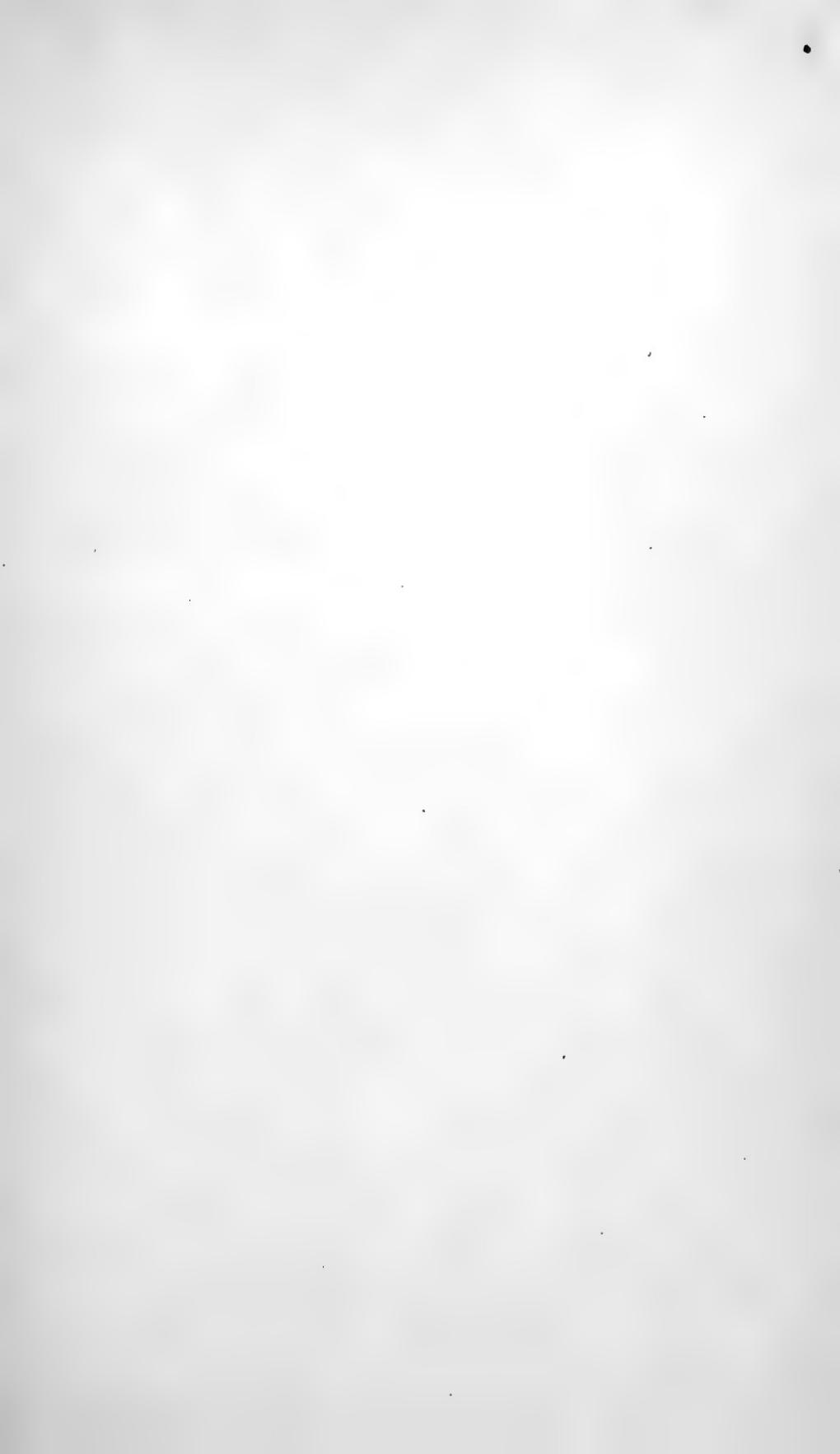
- FIG. 1. *Orygmatobothrium angustum* sp. nov., outline of strobile, enlarged 8 diameters.
- FIG. 2. Head and part of neck of same, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 3. Posterior segment of same, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 4. *Crossobothrium laciniatum* gen. et sp. nov., adult strobile, in fresh water, natural size.
- FIG. 5. Head and first segments of same specimen, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 6. Head and first segments of a specimen after lying for a few minutes in fresh water, enlarged 8 diameters.
- FIG. 7. Posterior segments of same, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 8. Posterior segments of another specimen, showing lateral openings for the discharge of ova, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 9. Head and first segments of adult, showing one position of bothria while in motion. The bothrium in front view and the one opposite (not shown in sketch) are thrust forward, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 10. The same, with one bothrium flattened out and applied to the bottom of the watch-glass, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 11. The same with two bothria pushed forward, the ends extended and curled outward, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 12. Free proglottis showing lateral opening for discharge of ova, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 13. Free proglottis before the ova are discharged, flattened under the compressor, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 14. Another after most of the ova have been discharged from the lateral opening, also flattened under compressor, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 15. Front view of head of specimen transferred from fresh water to alcohol, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 16. Transverse section through another specimen, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 17. Young strobile before segments have made their appearance near the head. The joints at the posterior end are pseudosegments; flattened under compressor, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 18. Head and anterior part of a young specimen in fresh water, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 18a. Anterior segments of same, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 18b. Posterior segments of same, enlarged 12 diameters.

Figures 9, 10, 11, 13, 14, and 17, from living specimens in sea-water; figures 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 18, 18a, and 18b, from living specimens in fresh water; others from alcoholic and mounted specimens.

All figures made by Mrs. Edwin Linton.



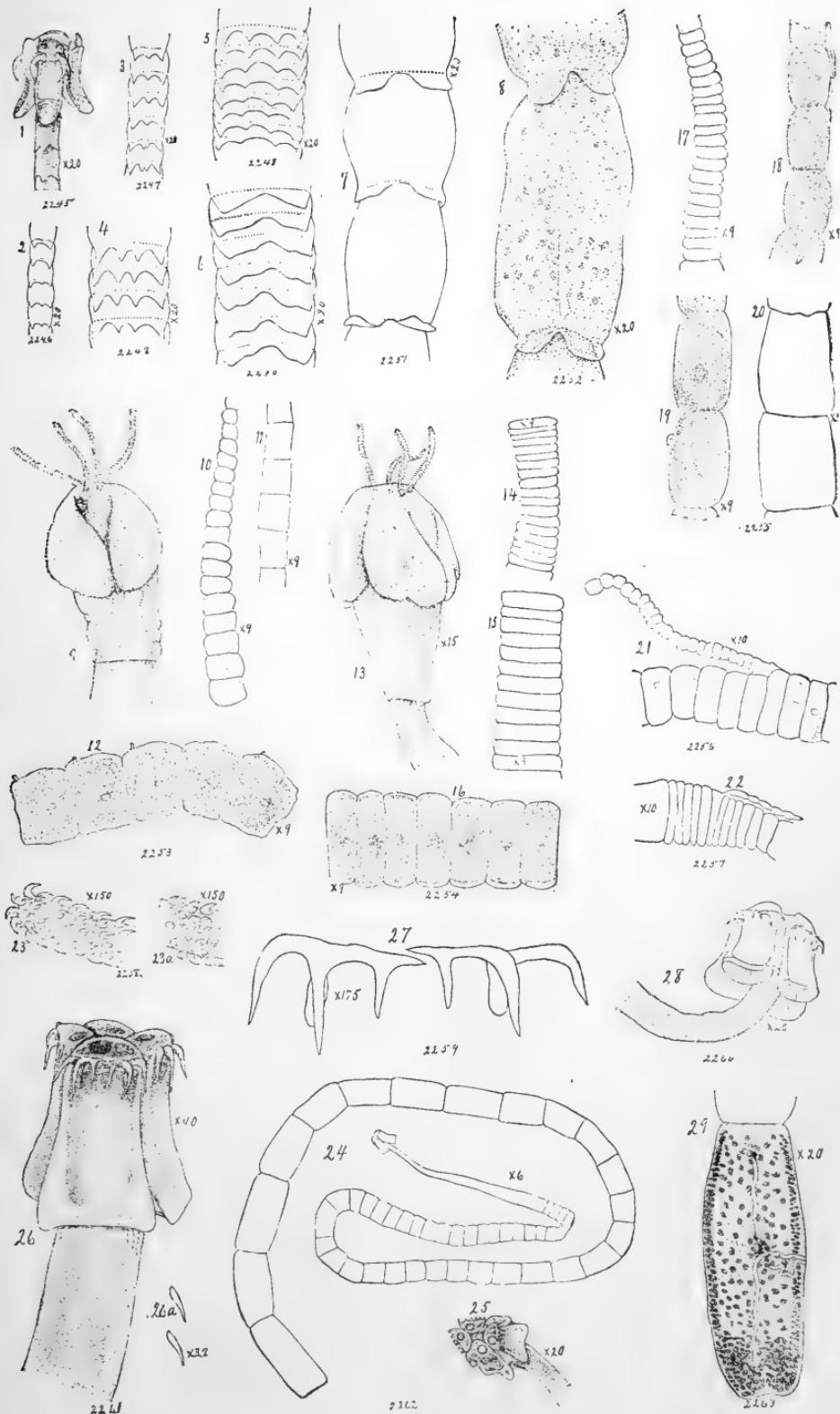


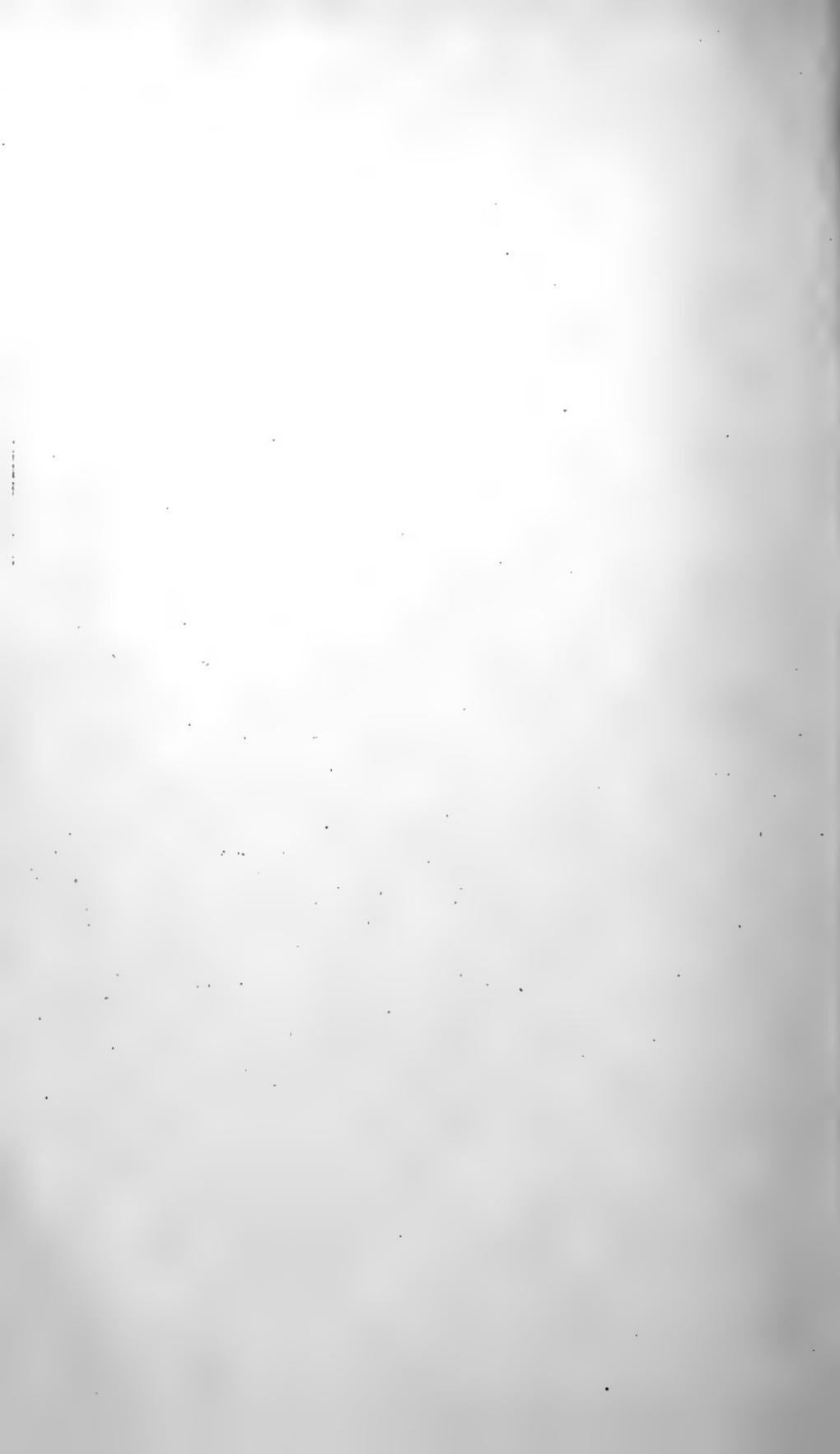


EXPLANATION OF PLATE IV.

- FIG. 1. *Calliobothrium verticillatum* Rudolphi. Head and first segments turned so that both a marginal and a lateral view may be obtained, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 2. Transition segments near head, showing the formation of secondary lateral flaps, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 3. Segments farther back, showing transition from three laciniae to four, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 4. Segments still farther back. The two median laciniae have become of equal length and nearly as long as the primary flaps; enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 5. Segments still farther towards posterior end, showing incipient obliteration of the two median lateral laciniae, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 6. Segments approaching posterior end, showing further modification of posterior margin, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 7. Segments near posterior end of strobile, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 8. Posterior mature segment, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 9. *Rhynchobothrium bisulcatum* sp. nov. Head and neck, lateral view, var. *a* (see description), enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 10. Anterior segments of same specimen, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 11. Antero-median segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 12. Posterior segments of same; length of strobile 48^{mm}; enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 13. Head and neck, marginal view, var. *γ* (see description); length of strobile 92^{mm}; enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 14. Antero-median segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 15. Median segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 16. Posterior segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 17. Anterior segments of another specimen, var. *β* (see description); length of strobile 230^{mm}; enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 18. Median segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 19. Postero-median segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 20. Outline of posterior segments of same, enlarged 9 diameters.
- FIG. 21. Abnormal form, secondary chain of segments, originating from the margins of two primary segments, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 22. Another secondary chain from the postero-marginal border of a primary segment, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 23. Apex of proboscis, enlarged 150 diameters.
- FIG. 23a. Base of same, enlarged 150 diameters.
- FIG. 24. *Phoreiobothrium lasium* gen. et sp. nov. Outline of strobile, enlarged 6 diameters.
- FIG. 25. Front view of head, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 26. Lateral view of head of another specimen, enlarged 40 diameters.
- FIG. 26a. Spines from neck of same, enlarged 350 diameters.
- FIG. 27. Compound hooks from one bothrium, enlarged 175 diameters.
- FIG. 28. Another specimen with many spines on the neck, and showing striae on bothria somewhat flattened under compressor; enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 29. Posterior mature segment, enlarged 20 diameters.

All the figures in this plate made from alcoholic or mounted specimens, by Mrs. Edwin Linton.

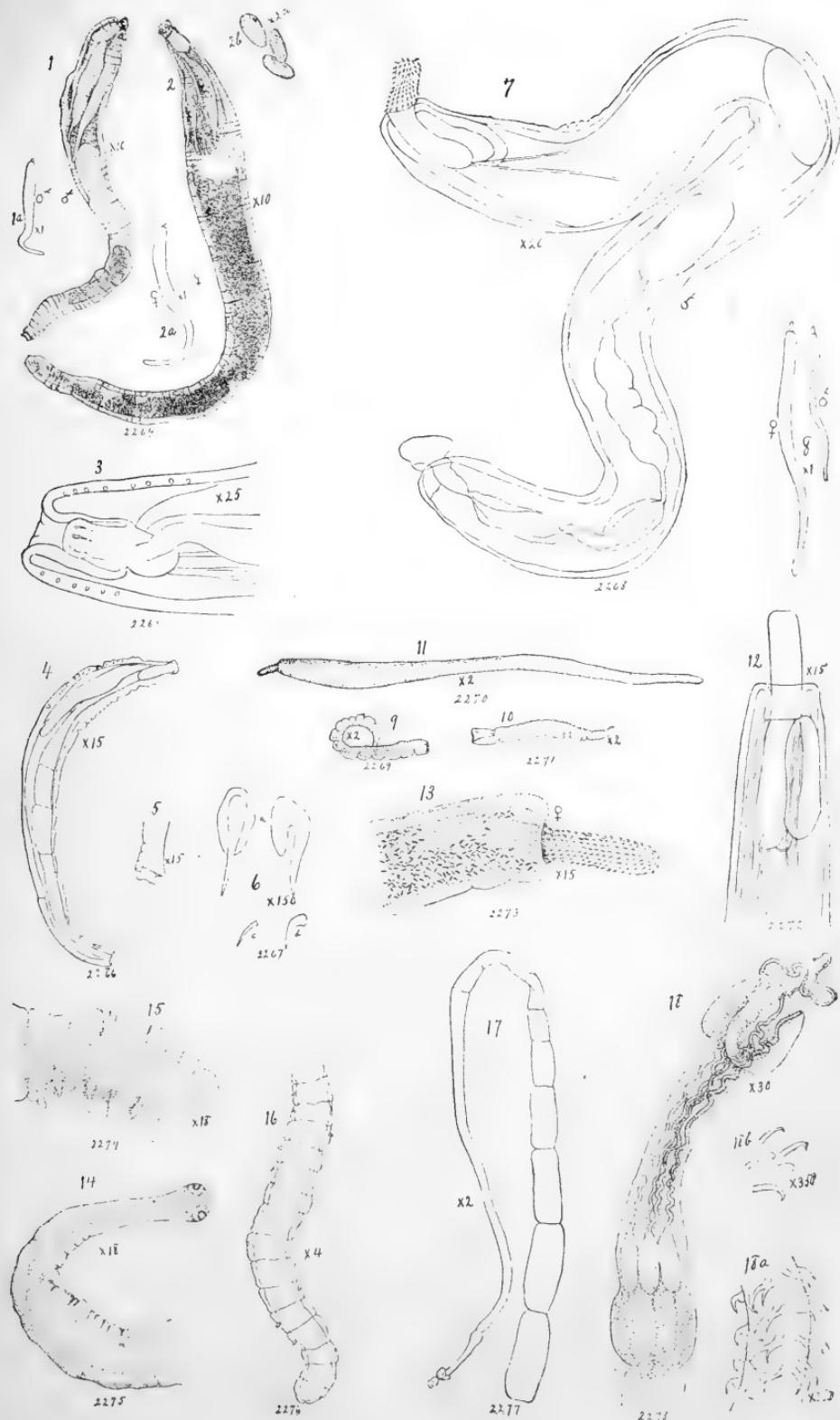


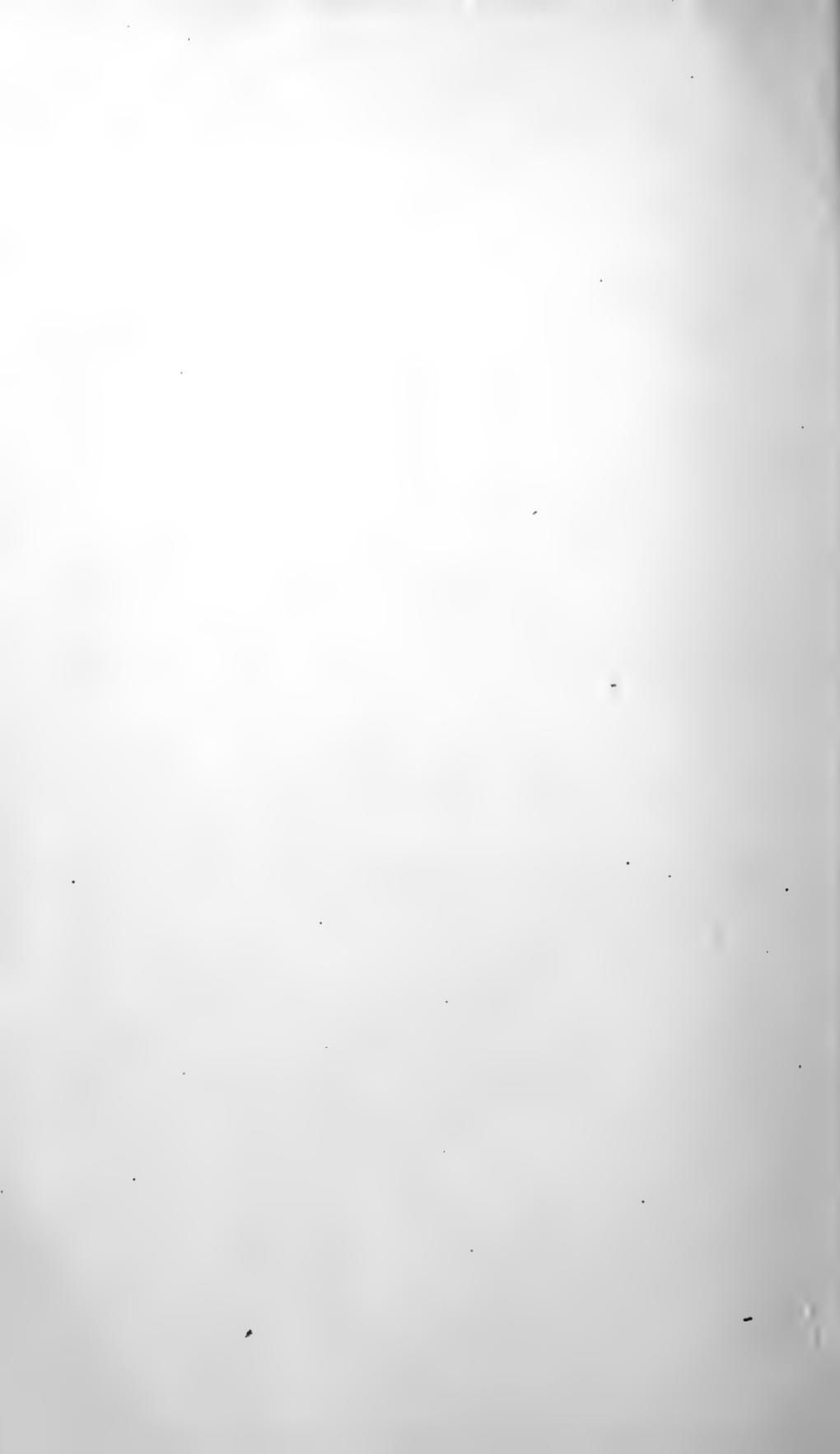


EXPLANATION OF PLATE V.

- FIG. 1. *Echinorhynchus agilis* Rudolphi. Sketch of living specimen, male, flattened under compressor, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 1a. Another specimen, male, natural size.
- FIG. 2. Sketch of living specimen, female, flattened under compressor, enlarged 10 diameters.
- FIG. 2a. Another specimen, female, natural size.
- FIG. 2b. Ova, enlarged 200 diameters.
- FIG. 3. Outline of specimen with proboscis retracted, enlarged 25 diameters.
- FIG. 4. Outline of male, from *C. obscurus*, enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 5. Posterior extremity of another male, showing bursa everted, enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 6. Hooks of proboscis; *a*, from first row; *b*, from second row; *c*, from third row; enlarged 150 diameters.
- FIG. 7. *Echinorhynchus acus* Rudolphi; outline of male, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 8. Male and female alcoholic specimens, natural size.
- Figs. 9 & 10. Specimens in sea-water, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 11. Specimen shown in Fig. 10, after lying some time in fresh water, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 12. Outline showing proboscis partly retracted, retractor muscles and lemnisci, enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 13. Anterior end of female, showing protruded proboscis and ova, enlarged 15 diameters.
- FIG. 14. *Tania dilatata* sp. nov. Head and anterior part of neck, enlarged 18 diameters.
- FIG. 15. Portion of neck, showing dilated folds, enlarged 18 diameters.
- FIG. 16. Outline of posterior segments, enlarged 4 diameters.
- FIG. 17. *Rhynchobothrium tenuicolle* Rudolphi. Outline of strobile, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 18. Head and neck of same, enlarged 30 diameters.
- FIG. 18a. Portion of proboscis, enlarged 350 diameters.
- FIG. 18b. Hooks near apex of proboscis, enlarged 350 diameters.
- Figures 1, 1a, 2, 2a, 2b, 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, 15, 16 from life; others from alcoholic and mounted specimens.

All figures made by Mrs. Edwin Linton.



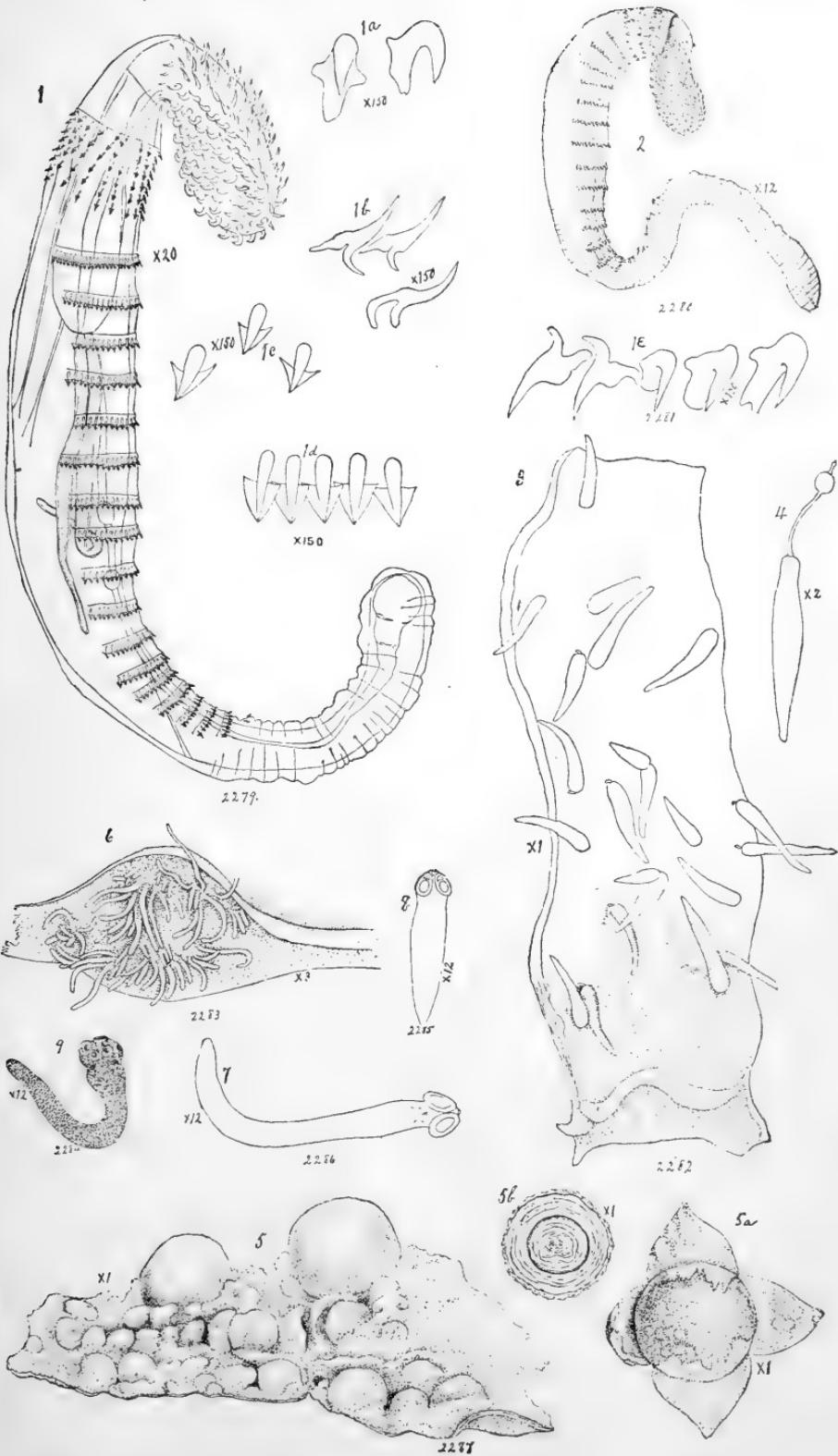


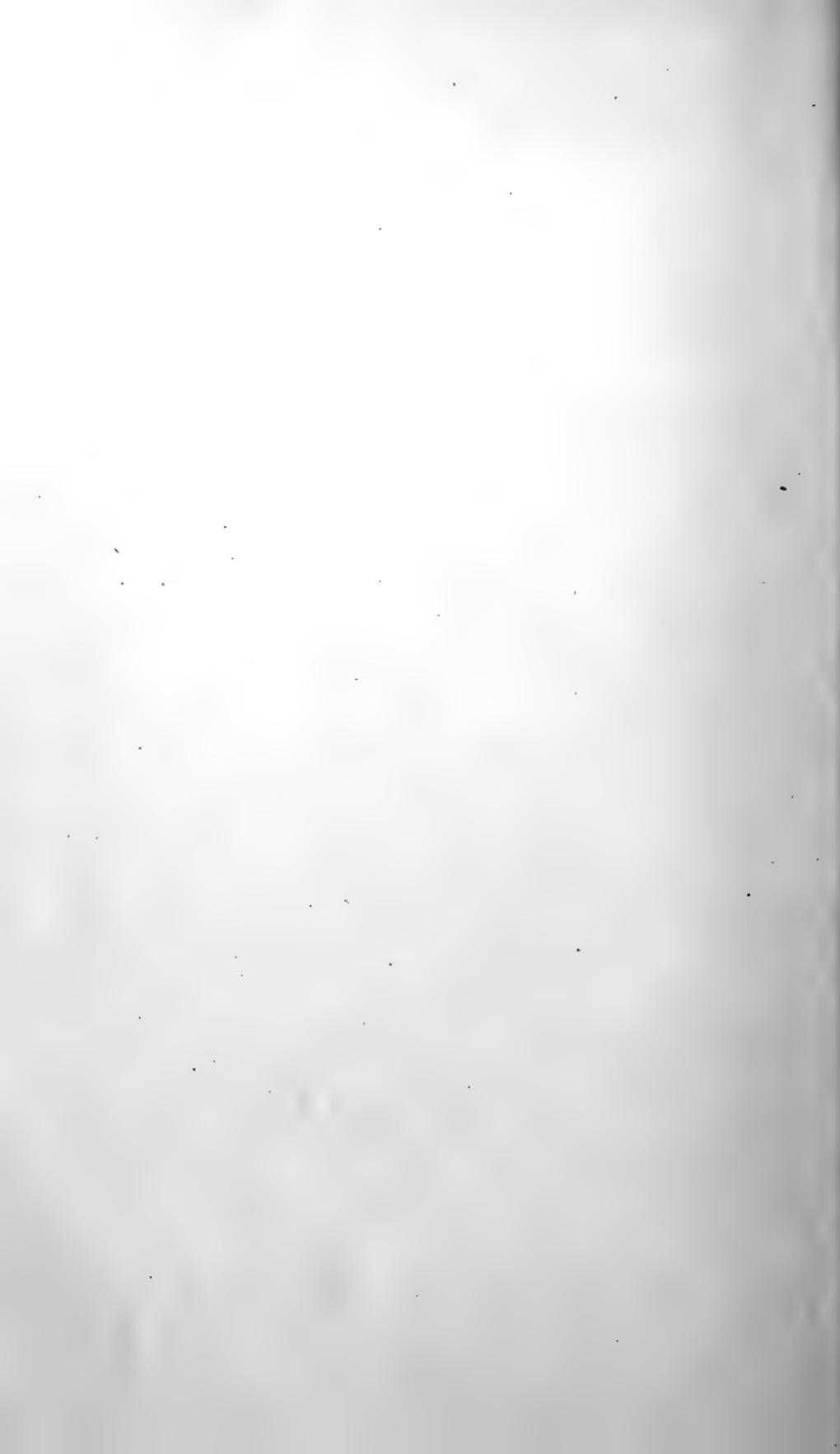


EXPLANATION OF PLATE VI.

- FIG. 1. *Echinorhynchus sagittifer* sp. nov. Outline sketch of young, showing pro truded proboscis, neck, collar armed with sagittate spines, transverse rows of sagittate spines on the body, and, interiorly, the proboscis sheath, retractor muscles of same, the genitalia depending from sheath of proboscis, enlarged 20 diameters.
- FIG. 1a. Hooks of proboscis, ventral side, enlarged about 150 diameters.
- FIG. 1b. Hooks of proboscis, dorsal side, enlarged about 150 diameters.
- FIG. 1c. Sagittate spines from collar, enlarged about 150 diameters.
- Fig. 1d. Sagittate spines from one of the transverse ventral rows on body, enlarged about 150 diameters.
- FIG. 1e. Five contiguous hooks in one of the spiral series on the proboscis, enlarged about 150 diameters.
- Fig. 2. Sketch of live specimen, somewhat flattened by the compressor, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 3. *Echinorhynchus proteus* Westrumb. Portion of rectum of *Roccus lineatus* (Striped Bass) with parasites attached, natural size.
- FIG. 4. Outline of an individual removed from its place of attachment, enlarged 2 diameters.
- FIG. 5. Abnormal secretions in peritoneal covering of large intestine of *Roccus lineatus*, to the inner coat of which numbers of these parasites were attached, as shown in Fig. 3, natural size.
- FIG. 5a. One of the cysts shown in Fig. 5, cut open, exposing the calculus within, natural size.
- FIG. 5b. Transverse section through one of the abnormal secretions, showing its concentric structure, natural size.
- FIG. 6. Portion of cystic duct of *Cynoscion regale* with young *Tetrabothria* attached to mucous lining, enlarged 3 diameters.
- FIG. 7. One of the specimens removed from its place of attachment, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 8. A young *Tetrabothrium* from intestine of same host, enlarged 12 diameters.
- FIG. 9. Another from same habitat, flattened under compressor, enlarged 12 diameters.

Figures 2, 3, 4, 6, 7, 8, and 9 from life; others from alcoholic or mounted specimens.
All figures made by Mrs. Edwin Linton.

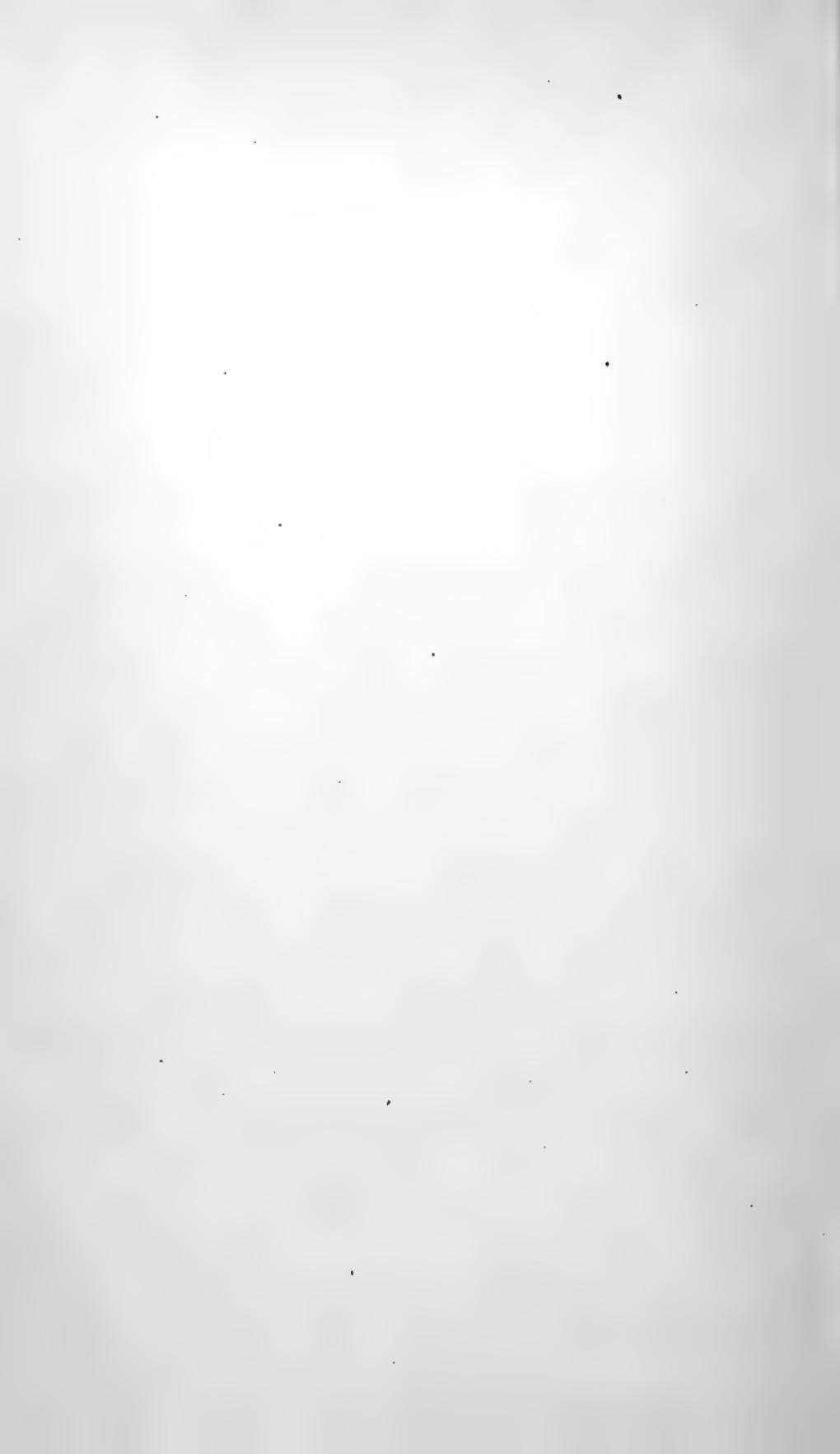




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[NOTE.—The references are to page-figures in brackets.]

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V.—REPORT ON THE MEDUSÆ COLLECTED BY THE U. S. FISH COMMISSION STEAMER ALBATROSS IN THE REGION OF THE GULF STREAM, IN 1885-'86.

BY J. WALTER FEWKES.

The following paper considers the Medusæ collected in the summers of the years 1885 and 1886 off the eastern coasts of the United States, in the region of the Gulf Stream. In this collection there are many genera which have already been described from this locality, and others which are believed to be new to science. Many belong to the so-called deep-sea fauna, and some, formerly supposed to be limited to great depths, are recorded by the collector from the surface waters.

Among Siphonophores, some of the most interesting are new specimens of the gigantic physophore, *Pterophysa*. One specimen in the collection of these animals reaches the great length of 23 feet in alcohol. Next to certain recorded specimens of the genus *Apolemia*, this is one of the largest Physophores yet described, and is the largest yet reported from the waters of the Gulf Stream contiguous to our coast. The new genus *Pleurophysa* is interesting in its relationship to the Rhizophysidæ, and the somewhat peculiar characters of the polypites.

Stomatoca periphylla is recorded for the first time from the western waters of the Atlantic.

A new *Pegantha*, a genus which has never before been found in the Gulf Stream, is described. As more and more specimens of the interesting genus *Atolla*, ascribed by Hæckel to the deep-sea fauna, are collected, the number of specimens from the surface water is increased. In the present collection we have three more examples of this medusa from the surface. This fact would seem to indicate that the genus is not necessarily confined to the great depth at which it was collected by the Challenger.

Halicreas and *Solmaris incisa* are found in the collection, and new facts for the acceptance of the deductions made from previously known specimens recorded.

Ephyroides rotaformis is represented by several specimens.

A new Ctenophore, of the known genus *Callianira*, is recorded for the first time from the waters of the Gulf Stream.

As more and more is known of the medusan life of the Gulf Stream, we see how rich in new genera the waters of this current are, and what a good collecting locality it presents for a discovery of new genera, species, and even families of these pelagic organisms.

This paper, like those with a similar title which have preceded it, is preliminary to a final report on North American Hydrozoa, which the author has in preparation.

SIPHONOPHORA.

PNEUMATOPHORÆ.

Family RHIZOPHYSIDÆ.

PTEROphysa, Fewkes.

In the collection of 1883 a Siphonophore was recorded, to which, from the peculiar wings or ptera on the polypites, the name *Pterophysa* was given.

The stem of this specimen is very much twisted, and the float and other portions so contracted that it was impossible for me to make out the anatomy of any part except polypites. The wings of the polypites are, however, so exceptional, that it seemed justifiable to refer this specimen on this ground to a new genus.

Pterophysa differs from any Rhizophysid in this and certain other features of the anatomy, which are well marked in the new specimens recently collected. In the collection of 1883 a giant float was found, which, although at that time not recognized as belonging to *Pterophysa*, after study of new material is thought to belong to this genus.

Among the collections made by Mr. A. Agassiz, in the Blake, there is also a huge Siphonophore, which has ptera on the polypites, and seems to belong to the same genus. These are the physophores ("Rhizophysa") mentioned by A. Agassiz in a letter to the Superintendent of the Coast Survey.*

In the collections of the Albatross, in 1885, there are fresh specimens of *Pterophysa*, which throw light on some points in the anatomy of this curious Rhizophysid. The specimens are as follows:

	Catalogue number.	Station.
1.....	10435	2398
2.....	11685	2570

Of the new specimens, No. 1 is the best preserved and the largest. Both were found twisted on the dredge wire or rope. Neither of the

* Letter No. 3. *Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool.* Vol. V, No. 14, pp. 289-290.

specimens have the body complete, but from the fragments of both several common details can be made out. No. 1 is destitute of a float; No. 2 has the float well developed.

PTEROPHYSA GRANDIS, Fewkes.

[No. 1.]

The stem of this specimen is approximately 20 feet in length in alcohol. It is ribbon-shaped, about 3^{mm} broad. Not twisted. Color in alcohol, white. No float present, but this structure is ruptured from its connection.

The terminal polypite is 40^{mm} in length, elongated, finger-shaped, with dark color near its distal end. On the proximal third of its length it bears two well-marked lateral bands or ptera, which are placed opposite each other on the polypite. The terminal polypite arises from a point on the axis where the stem is somewhat thickened. The surface of the thickened stem is nodose, probably from contraction. A short fragment of a tentacle springs from its base of attachment to the stem. The stem narrows above the nodose enlargement, becomes again thickened as it recedes from the polypite, and then diminishes in size to the flat, ribbon-like shape of the stem.

The penultimate polypite is elongated, finger-like, 50^{mm} in length, enlarged into a knob at the distal or oral end. In the proximal region, on each side, there are two marked ptera. The penultimate polypite is similar to the terminal, and arises from the stem by a long thread similar to but smaller than the peduncle. The filamentary union of the polypite to the stem arises from a tangled cluster of thread-like bodies on the stem. These bodies possibly correspond to the immature lateral branches of the tentacle.

Between the region of the stem from which the tangled lateral bodies arise and the other (opposite) end of the stem there are several polypites, all of which have similar filamentous attachments to the flat (in alcohol) axis, as the ultimate and penultimate. Many small clusters of sexual bodies, confined as a general thing to the flat axis, are noticed. These bodies have, like the sexual glands of *Rhizophysa*, the form of botryoidal clusters.

[No. 2.]

In this specimen a float and the proximal end of the axis are well preserved. The whole axis is 1.9^m long.

The float is large, 15^{mm} in length, and appears to be carried upright, as in *R. eysenhardtii*, Geg. It has an apical opening. This opening is surrounded by a zone of reddish pigment. From the pneumatophore hang digitiform appendages into the cavity of the pneumatocyst, as in the genus *Rhizophysa*. The walls of both pneumatocyst and pneumatophore are thin. At the base of the pneumatocyst the stem becomes

thick and swollen, while lower down, more distally from the float, it tapers gradually and becomes flat, as in the first specimen. On the one side of the thickened region of the stem there arises a small cluster of flask-shaped bodies, in the form of elongated, digitiform structures, which may be undeveloped polypites. Below (more distally from the float) the latter structures we find a number of polypites, more or less thickened by contraction, which are arranged in clusters. No tentacles observed attached to them. Nine polypites (one broken in examination) were counted in the largest cluster.

The distal end of the stem now (distally from the float) diminishes in diameter, and a second cluster of flask-shaped bodies is seen. When this second cluster is closely examined it is found to be composed of four polypites, brought together by a contraction of the stem. These polypites have ptera, but no tentacles. The last of the second cluster of polypites, the most distant from the float of any yet considered, is 60^{mm} from the apex of the float. The stem, between the first and second clusters of polypites, is muscular, more or less folded and nodose by contraction. It sometimes shows an infolded groove on one side.

The diameter of the stem distally from the second cluster of polypites diminishes very considerably, and after the addition to the number of existing polypites of two more, we find a long bare interval of the axis.

In addition to the long fragment of *Pterophysa* in No. 2, there are two other fragments of large size, which seem to belong to the same animal. Both of these fragments have a nodose stem, which appears much twisted and contorted. The first fragment is about 250^{mm} long, and at one end is flat, and seems to be broken from the axis of the larger specimen in the same bottle. It is enlarged about midway in its length, and at one end bears a swollen nodose body, from which arises a polypite. This polypite has a tentacle, which arises from one side.*

If we compare this fragment and its polypite with the terminal polypite of the specimen already described (No. 2), we find a close resemblance in many particulars. A swollen nodose body is present in both. Tentacles exist in both. The fragment is therefore regarded a terminal polypite.

In another fragment of No. 2 we have a long undivided part, which bifurcates and becomes nodose at the free ends, while a botryoidal body, homologous with a sexual gland, arises from one of the bifurcations.

PTEROphysa, sp. incog.

In the collection made by Mr. Agassiz in the Caribbean Sea there are a few mutilated specimens of a *Pterophysa*, the polypites of which have

* It is possible that in my account of the polypites of *Pterophysa* collected by the Albatross in 1883, I have exaggerated the grasping power of the ptera of these organs. As I then stated, "It is difficult to determine definitely the function of the ptera and the peculiar structure of the polypites of *Pterophysa*, unless we study the animal alive."

a close likeness to the above, although I have not been able to satisfactorily study the other organs. These specimens, in one or two instances, are destitute of a float, but when that organ is present it has the same cluster of flask-shaped immature polypites below it as in *Pterophysa*. The polypites themselves have the lateral wings.

Specimens of Pterophysa collected by the Blake.

Station.	Locality.
205	Off Martinique.
110	Kingston, St. Vincent. (Lat., 20° 10' 30" N.; long., 74° 19' 20".)
108	Off Nuevitas.

gen. incog.

Among the Siphonophores collected by the Blake is one from St. Kitt's, which I have not been able to identify on account of its fragmentary nature. The fragments consist of large numbers of polypites. The stem, float, and other organs are wanting. One or both ends of the polypite has a very dark red or purple (red) color. There are no lateral ptera. The polypites are about 40^{mm} in length.

PLEUROPHYSÆ, gen. nov.

P. INSIGNIS, sp. nov.

Among the new Rhizophysidæ are many specimens of a genus which is different from any yet described, and which probably is a new genus as well as species. The specimens are very numerous and come from the following localities:

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
12100	2543 2585 2584	° ' " 39 55 15	° ' " 70 42 30

Pleurophysa is destitute of nectocalices and hydrophyllia. The axis is thick (in alcohol), and all the appendages arise from one side of the stem.

Float small, pyriform, pigmented at the apex, with thin walls. Just below the float there is a small cluster of stylated spherical bodies, which occupy the same position as the undeveloped nectocalices in other physophores.

The region of the stem below the cluster of stylated bodies is thickened, and bears on one side a row of knobs. These were at first thought

to be the line of attachment of nectocalices. In a large number of specimens, however, no sign of a nectocalyx was discovered.

The distal end of the anterior stem (portion from which the knobs arise) is marked by a cluster of spherical or club-shaped bodies, which in some of the specimens have a reddish color even in alcohol. These botryoidal clusters resemble sexual bodies. The distal region of the stem from the cluster of bodies last mentioned is much longer than the anterior, and bears on one side a double row of flask-shaped bodies closely crowded together. These bodies are fimbriated on one side by small lateral appendages, and are thought to be polypites. No tentacles were observed, and no clusters of sexual bodies or immature tentacular knobs at the bases of the polypites. No clusters of sexual bodies on the axis between the union of the supposed polypites and the axis.

The polyp stem is spirally coiled in many of the specimens. No hydrophyllia. Tasters, unknown.

It must be said that the interpretation given to the different organs which has been given above is somewhat conjectural. Of the float, stem, and polypites there can be little doubt. It seems probable that the cluster of bodies which separate the anterior stem from the polyp stem are sexual bodies.

The nectocalices and hydrophyllia are easily ruptured from the stem, and their absence may simply be due to this fact. It seems strange that among so many specimens not even a fragment of these bodies is found, while in specimens of *Agalma*, collected by the same collectors, these gelatinous structures are well preserved. We shall, therefore, look with interest to a new collection of *Pleurophysa* and a study of better-preserved specimens for anatomical details, which this account necessarily leaves in great imperfection.

Family PHYSALIADÆ.

PHYSALIA ARETHUSA, Tilesius.

This physophore is one of the most commonly collected of all the siphonophores of the Gulf Stream. In the collections of 1885-'86 it is recorded from the following localities:

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude. ° ° °	West longitude. ° ° °
11637	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
11639	2567	37 45 00	66 56 00
15233	2711	38 59 00	70 07 00
15255	2712	38 20 00	70 05 30
15754	2723	36 47 00	73 09 30
15755	2725	36 34 00	73 48 00
15762	2727	36 35 00	74 03 30

PHYSOPHORÆ.

Family AGALMIDÆ.

{ AGALMA OKENII, Esch.
 { CRYSTALLODES RIGIDUM, Haeck.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ' "	° ' "
11838	Hyd. 743	41 15 30	64 23 00
11684	2569	39 26 00	68 03 30
11647	2570		
11676	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
15264	2712	38 20 00	70 05 30

HIPPOPODÆ.

Family HIPPOPODIDÆ.

GLEBA HIPPOPUS, Forskal.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ' "	° ' "
11676	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
11684	2569	39 26 00	68 03 30
12111	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
11683	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00

DIPHYÆ (CALYCOPHORÆ).

Family ABYLAIDÆ.

ABYLA TRIGONA, Quoy & Gaimard.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11670	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00

This is the first mention of *A. trigona* from the Gulf Stream, although I have seen specimens from the Caribbean Sea.

A fragment of the posterior Nectocalyx.

Family DIPHYIDÆ.

EPIBULIA AURANTIACA, Vogt.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11836	Hyd. 753	° 40 18 30	° 53 39 30
12109	2543	39 58 15	70 42 30

DIPHYES, sp.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11836	Hyd. 753	° 40 18 30	° 53 39 30

MUGGLÆA, sp. ?

Among the Diphyid-like Medusæ are many specimens which have the anterior nectocalyx only. All of these I have placed in the genus *Muggiaea*, following Chun* in his limitation of the generic name *Muggiae* to Diphyids with one nectocalyx, which resembles the anterior nectocalyx of the genus *Diphyes*. Our Atlantic species somewhat resembles *M. kochii*, but differs from it in several particulars. In the absence of more knowledge of the live animal, I will provisionally refer this to an unknown species of *Muggiaea*.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
15227	2711	° 38 59 00	° 70 07 00
15254	2715	38 29 30	70 54 30
15755	2725	36 34 00	73 48 00

* Ueber die cyclische Entwicklung und Verwandtschafts-Verhältnisse der Siphonophoren. *Sitzungsber. Akad. Wiss.*, LII, pp. 1155-1172. Berlin, 1882.

DISCOIDEA.

Family VELELLIDÆ.

VELELLA MUTICA, Bosc.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ′ ″	° ′ ″
11644	Hyd. 753	40 18 30	53 39 30
15748	2727	36 35 00	74 03 30
15749	2723	36 47 00	73 09 30
15751	2727	36 35 00	74 03 30
15755	2725	36 34 00	73 48 00

Family PORPITIDÆ.

PORPITA LINNÆANA.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ′ ″	° ′ ″
11640	2536	39 56 15	70 47 30
11641	2537	39 56 45	70 50 30
11642	2538	39 57 30	70 51 15
11643	2566	37 23 00	18 08 00

CRASPEDOTA.

Family ÆQUORIDÆ, Eschscholtz.

POLYCANNA, Hæckel.

It is very difficult to distinguish the genera and species of the above family, especially the American representatives.

A. Agassiz describes three species of *Zygodactyla* from our coast: *Z. grænlandica* Ag., *Z. crassa* A. Ag., and *Z. cyanea*, A. Ag. Hæckel places *Z. grænlandica*, *Z. crassa*, and *Cremastoma flava*, A. Ag., in the genus *Polycanna*, Hæckel, while *Z. cyanea* A. Ag. is referred to his genus *Mesonema* as *M. cyaneum*. According to A. Agassiz, the tentacles in *Z. grænlandica*, *Z. crassa*, and *C. flava* are more numerous than the chymiferous tubes. This is true also, according to Hæckel, of *P. vitrina*, Hæck. In *P. germanica* and *P. italica*, Hæck., the tubes and tentacles correspond in number, while in *P. fungina*, Hæck., the radial tubes are more numerous than the tentacles. These characters form the three subgenera:

1. *Rhacostoma*. Radial tubes more numerous than tentacles.
2. *Cremastoma*. Radial tubes equal in number to the tentacles.

3. Zygodactyla. Tentacles more numerous than the radial tubes.

It is evident from what we know of the development of the Medusa (gonophore) of *Z. grænlandica* (?) that the relative number of tentacles and radial tubes varies with age, and consequently the three subgenera are difficult to separate on this feature alone. There are specimens of *Polyacantha* in the collection with characters of the first subgenus *Rhacostoma*, to which I have already given the name *P. americana*. It is believed that we have at least two species of *Polyacantha* on our New England coast, and provisionally these may be known as *P. grænlandica* and *P. americana*. The basis of the separation of the two is the existence in the former of rows of subumbra! knobs between the chymiferous tubes and the absence of these knobs in the latter. It happens that in the latter the number of tentacles is less than the number of chymiferous tubes, while in the former, according to A. Agassiz, the number of tentacles is greater than that of the radial tubes.*

It seems to me that the presence or absence of the subumbra! knobs is a much safer character to rely upon in the separation of our species of *Polyacantha* than any which has yet been suggested. If new investigation shall show that true specimens of *grænlandica* do not have subumbra! knobs, our New England species is possibly new. From the fact that a supposed type specimen of *Polyacantha*, labeled *Z. grænlandica*, in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, has these tubercles, the name *grænlandica* is retained for this species.

There is another *Zygodactylæ*-like Medusa in which I have not been able to find these gelatinous knobs, either in a live animal or in alcoholic representatives. As this species also differs from the species *crassa* and *cyanea* in the relative number of tentacles and chymiferous tubes, it is supposed to be the new species, *americana*.

Unlike all other American *Zygodactylæ*, as described by A. Agassiz, this species has a smaller number of tentacles than of radial tubes, and at the same time none of the alcoholic specimens have subumbra! tubercles. It is possible that the former feature indicates an immature Medusa, but not so the latter; for, as has been already shown, the subumbra! tubercles are present in the Medusa when very small.

Specimens referred to *P. americana* were collected in the following localities:

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ′ ″	° ′ ″
11650	2563	39 18 30	71 23 30
11665	2567	37 45 00	66 56 00
11673	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
11674	2563 ?	39 18 30	71 23 30
11677	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
? 11649	2539	39 59 45	70 53 00

* The existence of radial subumbra! knobs and a larger number of tentacles than radial tubes is supposed to characterize *grænlandica*, although the knobs are not mentioned in A. Agassiz's description.

POLYCANNA AMERICANA,* Fewkes.

Of all the specimens of the species examined in the collection of 1885, No. 11674, station 2563, is the best preserved. A diagnosis of the species is made from this specimen.

Disk flat, with a slight apical protuberance. Roof of the stomach convex, thicker than the margin. Diameter of the roof of the stomach, 28^{mm}. Diameter of the disk, 70^{mm}. Stomach wide, lips open. The stomach wall is formed by papillate folds, the number of which is equal to the tubes. These tubes fall down below the velum. Numerous (107) chymiferous tubes, each of which bears a folded sexual gland, reaching from the vicinity of the stomach to the marginal vessel.

Tentacles, 29–32? in number, long, base inflated. Between each pair of tentacles there are five or more small protuberances on the bell margin. These are either otocysts or immature tentacles. No subumbrial tubercles on the umbrella, between the chymiferous tubes.

Of the other recorded *Polycanna*, *P. grænlandica*, *P. flava*, and *P. crassa* have more tentacles than chymiferous tubes. No tubercles are recorded in *P. flava*. In an alcoholic specimen of *Zygodactyla*, with tubercles, now in the collection of the Museum of Comparative Zoology, the tentacles are missing. I cannot, therefore, say at present whether the specimens with tubercles have the same number of tentacles as tubes or not. If the *Zygodactyla*, with tubercles, last mentioned, has more tentacles than tubes it may be *grænlandica*; if less, it is doubtful whether it is the same as the species (*grænlandica*) which is recorded by A. Agassiz as possessed of more tentacles than tubes.

Family AMPHINEMIDÆ, Hæckel.

STOMATOCA† PERIPHYLLO, Hæckel.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
15229	2711	° / "	° / "
15253	2713	38 59 00	70 07 00
		38 20 00	70 08 30

Two well-preserved specimens of this species were found by the Albatross in the summer of 1886.

We have in our waters two very beautiful genera of the family of Tiaridæ, with two opposite tentacles. One of these is the well known

* This species is supposed to be the same, or closely allied to the genus once called *Rhegmatodes*, now *Polycanna*. It is given the former name in the plates, the latter in the text of Hæckel's System der Medusen. The species falls in Hæckel's subgenus *Rhacostoma* (L. Agassiz, *sensu mutato*) and may be the same as *P. fungina*, Hæck.

† The spelling, *Stomatoca*, is adopted instead of *Stomotoca*, from the derivation στόμα (gen. στόματος) root στοματ.

S. apicata (*Amphinema apicatum*, Haeckel); the other, the *Dinematella*, Fewkes. Both of these have in the adult condition an apical prominence on the bell, which in the former is without internal cavity, and in the latter with a cavity. *Stomatoca periphylla*, Haeckel, is destitute of this prominence, is much larger, and the stomach is situated on an especial "Magenstiel." In this species the mouth lappets, stomach with sexual bodies, lie outside the bell cavity. The specimens agree substantially with Haeckel's description, except that the tentacular bulbs at the base of the tentacles are more swollen than he represents in his figure (Pl. iv, fig. 10, Das System der Medusen). It is probable from the studies of Hineks, Allman, and Haeckel that the young of this species has for its hydroid a genus related to or identical with *Perigonimus*. This notice is the first record of *S. periphylla*, from the Western Atlantic.

Family GERYONIDÆ, Eschscholtz.

LIRIOPE SCUTIGERA, McCr.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
15229	2711	38° 59' 00"	70° 07' 00"
15253	2713	38° 20' 00"	70° 08' 30"

Family CUNANTHIDÆ, Haeckel.

CUNINA?

Among the Narcomedusæ there are a few specimens of a *Cunina*-like medusa which is temporarily referred to this genus. The specimen was so mutilated that it was impossible to tell whether it was a *Cunina* or a *Solmaris*, although from the character of the festoon canal and the existence of gastral pouches, it seems more closely allied to the former genus. It was not possible to see the gastral pouches, one of the main characters of the Cuninidæ, in several of the specimens, although they are well seen in one of the same.

Specimens examined.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11687	2585 2569	39° 26' 00"	68° 03' 30"

The collar lobes of these specimens are girt by a horseshoe-shaped festoon canal, as in the Peganthidæ, but the bell is more flexible and not crossed by the radial elevations and depressions upon the exumbrella.*

Umbrella flat, discoid, with a ring of sexual bodies divided into as many lobes as tentacles and alternating with them. In each marginal lobe there is a genital sac, which is free from the wall of the lobes on the floor of the gastral pouches.

Tentacles numerous, 20 to 22 or more in number, springing from the sides of the body or the peripheral border of the umbrella. Tentacles longer than the diameter of the bell. The marginal collar is composed of as many lobes as there are tentacles, and each has a festoon canal. Peroniæ wanting.?

The following notes were made from a specimen with 22 tentacles: Umbrella flat, lens-shaped or discoidal. Color, transparent, white in alcohol, flabby, gelatinous. Outer surface (exumbrella) smooth. The body divided into a central region and a peripheral collar.

Central region plano-convex or double convex. The greater convexity is below. Diameter in alcohol, 20^{mm.}.

Upper surface flat. No coronal fossa or annular indentation at the rim near the origin of the tentacles.

The marginal collar is composed of twenty-two marginal lappets joined laterally by a thin membrane. The festoon canal broad, extending from tentacle to tentacle in well-marked horseshoe shaped-loops. No sense bodies were seen, on account of the poor preservation of the specimen.

The festoon canal seems to open on each side of the tentacle into the central stomach cavity. The edge of the marginal lappets is girt by a thin velum. The tentacles are long (longer than the diameter of the bell) and are inserted into the gelatinous substance of the bell by a conical root extending radially. No peronia and no marked marginal canal besides the festoon canal. Twenty-two gastral pouches. The stomach is a dish-shaped cavity bounded above by the under surface of the central region of the disk and below by the wall of the stomach. Well-marked gastral pouches. The mouth has a broad opening without protruding lips.

The sexual bodies lie in a ring on the peripheral region of the lower stomach walls in the gastral pouches. In the specimen with twenty-two tentacles these organs were not seen.

In other and larger specimens in which, however, in one instance at least, there are not as many tentacles, the sexual bodies take the form of sacs hanging in the lower wall of the stomach between the radii of the tentacles. In one case these glands are very much inflated; in another they have the form of a simple band. Of the species of *Cunina*

* The species of *Cunina*, *C. discoides*, may eventually turn out to be one of the Atlantic species of *Solmaris*. It may be the young of *S. coronantha*, Haeckel.

from the Atlantic,* *C. campanulata*, Esch. has ten gastral pouches, *C. oligotis*, Haeckel, has sixteen. Of Mediterranean *Cunina*, *C. vitrea*, Gegenbaur, has ten to twelve gastral pouches; *C. lativentris*, Gegenbaur, the same number; and *C. prolifera*, Gegenbaur, sixteen. *C. rhododactyla*, Haeckel, has ten to fifteen gastral pouches, and *C. rubiginosa* ten to twelve. A species from the Pacific Ocean, *C. mucilaginosa*, Blain., and one from the Indian Ocean, *C. multifida*, Haeckel, have respectively twenty to twenty-four and thirty-two stomach pouches. These latter, however, appear to differ from my *Cunina* in the length of the tentacles and other structural details. Our specimens therefore may be looked upon either as of a new species or more mature adults of species already described.

These specimens were at first referred to *Solmissus* in a provisional examination of them. The structures which I have interpreted as the festoon canals would throw them out of the genus *Solmissus*. *S. faberi* Haeckel, has twenty-four gastral pouches, and *S. bleekii* thirty-two.

Subfamily TAMOYIDÆ, Haeckel.

CARYBDEA (TAMOYA) HAPLONEMA, F. Müller.

Specimens of this medusa were taken at the following localities:

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ′ ″	° ′ ″
11679	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00
11686	2566	37 23 00	68 08 00

Claus† considers *Tamoya* the old genus, *Carybdea*, Peron et Leseuer. Haeckel‡ describes a medusa, which the above specimens closely resemble as *Carybdea pyramis*, Haeckel. The latter author separates *Carybdea* from *Tamoya*. My specimens resemble more closely his *Carybdea* than *Tamoya*. They are larger than *C. pyramis* and smaller than *T. haplonema*. If the two genera are separated our medusæ more closely resembles *Carybdea*, but I have followed Claus in regarding them as the same. This medusa appears to be the same as that which is mentioned as *Tamoya* in the collection of 1883-'84. §

* *Cunina discoides*, Fewkes, was probably described from an immature specimen. No gastral pouches were observed, and it is therefore probable that it belongs to the Solmaridæ. It is possibly the young of *Solmaris coronantha*, Haeckel.

† *Ueber Carybdea marsupialis*. *Arbeit. Zool. Inst. Wien.*, I Heft., 1878.

‡ *Das System der Medusen*, pp. 440, 443.

§ Cf. Report on Albatross Medusæ for 1883-'84. *Ann. Rept. Com. Fish and Fisheries*, 1884, p. 951.

Family HALICREASIDÆ, Fewkes.

HALICREAS MINIMUM, Fewkes.

Specimens of *Halicreas* were taken from the following locality :

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ' "	° ' "
15244	2719	38 29 30	71 58 00
15750	2728	36 30 00	74 03 30

This genus is recognized by the eight tuberculated projections on the exumbrial margin of the bell. From these projections there extend to the vicinity of the center of the bell eight ribs or radial depressions, which appear on the subumbrial surface as radial depressions between which the octants of the subumbrella are somewhat swollen. Near the center of the subumbrella is a ring of eight knobs which lie one in each octant between the above-mentioned depressions.

There is a well marked vellum below the marginal projections. The radial projections appear as elevations on the exumbrial side of the bell in alcoholic specimens.

In my former paper* I referred this genus to the Narcomedusæ of Haeckel. There is no reason from a study of new material to change that opinion of the affinities of the family of Halicreasidæ.

Family PEGANTHIDÆ, Haeckel.

Among the families of Narcomedusæ described by Haeckel is the Peganthidae, a family without radial canals and gastric pouches in the subumbrella but with a festoon canal. The sexual bodies are either lobed or form a non-continuous band on the under floor of the stomach.

Among the meduse collected by the Albatross is one which has a close likeness to the genus *Pegantha* of the Peganthidae but which differs from the known species of this genus so widely that it may be necessary later to call it a new species.

This *Pegantha* somewhat resembles *P. quadriloba*, although the genital sacs are not as markedly four-lobed as Haeckel's description of this species would seem to indicate. It has marked lobes in the sexual glands, but the poor condition of preservation and the rupture in one or two instances of the gland from its attachment rendered it impossible for me to tell to what species this *Pegantha* belongs.

* Bull. Mus. Comp. Zool., ix, 8, p. 306. In one of the two specimens of *Halicreas* there described, sausage-shaped sexual bodies were observed hanging from the underside of the bell. In one of the above specimens (15750) glandular bodies were observed in the subumbrial radial furrows.

PEGANTHA, sp.

[Plate 1.]

The sexual bodies divided into a number of separate sacs pendant from the abaxial lower wall of the stomach. The sexual glands do not enter the umbrella lobes but alternate with the attachments of the tentacles, which they equal in number. No coronal fossa.*

Specimen examined.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11654	2559	° / " 39 48 00	° / " 71 48 30

Bell, crown-shaped, twice as broad as high, with stiff gelatinous walls. The bell is thick, biconvex, firm. The marginal lobes folded inward on the oral side so that they are with difficulty bent back to normal position without rupture. Exumbrella crossed by strongly-marked, prominent radial ridges, separated by radial furrows. These ridges and furrows arise from the center of the exumbrella in the radii of the marginal lappets and divide, sending off lateral branches which pass into the marginal lappets.

The collar of the umbrella, or the peripheral portion of the bell, is made up of thirteen horseshoe-shaped marginal lobes with festoon canals. These lobes are connected by a thin membrane which unites contiguous lobes and skirts their borders. The specimen was not well enough preserved to observe the sense-bodies.

The subumbrella is divided into two regions, one corresponding with the central disk and marked by the lower stomach wall; the other with the collar region formed by the horseshoe lappets. The mouth opening is simple. The lower stomach wall thick, well marked. The sexual saes form a number of pouches upon the outer rim of the lower stomach wall. They appear as folds or separated sacs, the exact number of which could not be determined in the single specimen studied. There are thirteen sexual glands, each of which lies in an internemal radius. An open niche is formed in each marginal lappet, as described by Haeckel, in which the sexual organs are forced when the medusa bends inward the lobes of the collar. There are thirteen tentacles, each of which arises in the incisions formed by the horse-shoe-shaped festoon canal. They are long and slender, apparently hollow, and have the same color as the bell.

*The surface of the exumbrella is continuous and without division between the disk part of the umbrella and the marginal lobes. *P. pantheon*, which this species in some respects closely resembles, has a "deep horizontal coronal fossa."

Family SOLMARIDÆ, Hæckel.

SOLMARIS INCISA, Fewkes.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude:	West longitude.
11667	2429	42° 55' 30"	50° 51' 00"

Several large specimens of this giant Narcomedusa occur in the collections; in one of these the form of the bell is unmutilated and the subumbrial elevations and depressions well shown. The velarium is undivided into marginal lappets, showing that my conjecture of the non-existence of separate lappets in the jelly-fish is borne out by a study of fresh material. There are in the largest specimen (entire) thirty subumbrial depressions. There are thirty tentacles and the same number of peroniae. No festoon canal.

Many of the "marginal lappets" in other specimens are united, indicating, as already suggested, the existence of connections along the peroniae, which are split in most of the specimens studied. The velarium is formed by a union of all the marginal lappets, and recalls that of other Solmaridæ.

The feature upon which the species is built is the radial grooves on the under side of the umbrella, as already elsewhere described. These "radial-furchen" resemble structures in *Cunina campanulata*, where, according to Hæckel, they are on the "untere magenwand." In *S. incisa* these furrows are on the upper wall of the stomach or the under wall of the disk.

A new examination of *S. incisa* to determine, if possible, whether I might not be mistaken in my identification, and whether my specimen does not belong to *C. campanulata* has convinced me that my specimens have no festoon canals, and differ in many other ways from *Cunina*. *S. incisa* is more disk-like than campanulate, is larger than *Campanulata* and has more tentacles. Instead of gastral pouches in the pernemal radii there are prominent umbral elevations. The furrows are interne-
mal. In one specimen the edges of the gastral furrows were lined with a white structure which may be the remnants of the attachment of the ovaries. The species differs so greatly from other *Solmares* that it may probably be found to be a new genus.

This animal is a giant among the Narcomedusæ. The only gênuis of the group which approaches it in size is *Polyxenia*, of which *P. cyanostylis*, Esch., according to Eschscholtz is 80mm in diameter. According to Hæckel a species found by him was one-third smaller than that of

Eschscholtz. The largest of the other genera of Narcomedusæ are 50^{mm} in diameter, one-half the size of large specimens of *S. incisa*.

In all specimens of *S. incisa* found, the under wall of a stomach is supposed to be ruptured and absent. The liability of this to occur in Solmaridæ has led me to suppose the same thing possible in my new species.

ACRASPEDA.

Family COLLASPIDÆ, Hæckel.

ATOLLA BAIRDII, Fewkes.

No.	Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.	Depth.
			° ' "	° ' "	Fathoms.
3	11663	2428	42 46 00	50 55 30	826
4	15756	2732	37 27 00	73 33 00	1152

No.	Tentacles.	Marginal lappets.	Sense bodies.	Diameter of central disk.	Breadth of corona.
				mm.	mm.
3	23	46	23	40	18
4	22	44	22	40	18

ATOLLA VERRILLII, Fewkes.

No.	Catalogue number.	Station.	North lati- tude.	West longi- tude.	Depth.	Number of specimens.
			° ' "	° ' "		
9	11672	2569	39 26 00	68 3 30	1872	1
10						
11						
12	15236	2717	38 24 00	71 13 00	Surface.	3

No.	Tentacles.	Marginal lappets.	Sense bodies.
9	26	52	26
10	28	56	28
11	28	56	28
12	22	44	22

The two species of American *Atolla*, *A. bairdii* and *A. verrillii*, can be readily distinguished by the size of the marginal sense bodies, which in the latter are larger, longer, and narrower than in the former. The number of tentacles in *bairdii* is generally twenty-two, while in

verrillii we find several specimens with twenty-eight. Why Hæckel has assigned from sixteen to thirty-two tentacles to the Collaspidæ does not appear from what we already know of the genera (*Collaspis* and *Atolla*) which compose the family. The least number of tentacles observed in any of my *Atolla* is twenty-two. Hæckel records an *Atolla* with nineteen tentacles. The greatest number of tentacles observed in any *Atolla* is twenty-eight in my species *verrillii*. It is not denied that it is possible that *Atolla* with less than nineteen or more than twenty-eight tentacles may be later observed, but until these are found it is well to include the limits in the number observed (nineteen, *teste* Hæckel), twenty-two to twenty-eight.

The deepest limit in the ocean at which *Atolla* has been recorded is 2,369 fathoms. Many specimens are recorded from the surface. *Atolla* has been found by the Albatross within the following geographical limits: Lat. $38^{\circ} 19' 26''$ to $42^{\circ} 46'$, long. $50^{\circ} 55' 30''$ to $71^{\circ} 58'$. The Albatross has collected thirteen specimens of the genus.

The genus *Collaspis*, Hæck., of which several drawings are published by Hæckel (System der Medusen, Pl. xxviii), was collected "by Smith" between Kerguelen and Crozet Islands in "about 1,000 fathoms," according to Hæckel. The expedition upon which this specimen was collected is not mentioned, but the great depth from which it is said to have been taken excites more than usual interest in it. Very few, if any, other hauls besides those of the Challenger have been made at this depth in this remote locality, and this seems to be the only medusa ascribed to "Smith" from this locality. Hæckel's description of *Collaspis* was made from a very much mutilated specimen, which he reconstructed from his knowledge of *Atolla*, and allowed a drawing of the medusa thus reconstructed to be published. On account of what might be regarded as suspicious circumstances, under which Hæckel's description of *Collaspis* was made, the genus is not recognized.

According to Filhol (La Vie au Fond des Mers, p. 244) *Atolla* is found "dans l'Atlantique sud et dans l'Atlantique nord au niveau du canal des Faröer." The species of the *Atolla*, from the latter locality, is not mentioned by Filhol, and it is probably the same as one of mine, *A. bairdii* or *A. verrillii*.

The increase in number of specimens from the surface would indicate that *Atolla* is found on the surface of the ocean as well as at great depths. The data for this statement are those of the collector. I have already discussed the limitations which necessarily exist to a rigid acceptance of the recorded depths ascribed to this and other so-called deep-sea medusæ.

Family PERIPHILLIDÆ, Haeckel.

PERIPHILLA HYACINTHINA,* Steen.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ' "	° ' "
11651	2427	42 46 00	51 00 00
11655	2565	38 19 20	69 02 30
11662	2429	42 55 30	50 51 00
15750	2728	36 30 00	74 33 00
15756	2732	37 27 00	73 33 00

Family EPHYRIDÆ, Haeckel.

EPHYROIDES ROTAFORMIS, Fewkes.

Several more specimens of this remarkable genus and species were collected by the Albatross in 1886. Although all were in good condition as far as the bell and subumbrial radial elevations are concerned, the finer anatomy could not be made out.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
		° ' "	° ' "
15236	2717	38 24 00	71 13 00
15249	2719	38 29 30	71 58 00
15256	2717	38 24 00	71 13 00
15266	2712	38 20 00	70 05 30

Ephyroides is characterized as follows: On the subumbrial surface of a thick umbrella there are radial elevations (in one specimen 32 in number) which alternate with the marginal lappets. These elevations are half cylindrical, sausage-shaped, radially situated, extending from the margin of the umbrella at its junction with the marginal lappets towards the center of the bell. They resemble on the subumbrial side of the umbrella the soles of the exumbrial side, and lie in the radii be-

* This species is common as far north as Greenland. The allied genus *Nauphanta* somewhat resembles the young *Periphylla*, but has eight sense bodies and eight tentacles. It remains yet to be seen whether the young *Periphylla* has the same number of tentacles and sense bodies as the adult. If it has eight tentacles instead of twelve it may be readily conjectured that *Nauphanta* is a young *Periphylla*, and that immature tentacles have been mistaken for sense bodies.

I have elsewhere recorded a *Nauphanta*, *N. polaris*, Fewk., from Lady Franklin Bay, North Greenland.

There seems to be a relationship between the cold waters of great depths of the sea and those of the cold waters of the Arctic Ocean. Temperature would seem to play an important part in the relationship of medusæ from these two localities.

tween those which pass through the middle line of each marginal lappet. The best preserved of all the specimens is from Station 2717. In this specimen the stumps of certain of the tentacles are present. They lie, as stated above, on the notches between the marginal lappets. The form of the abaxial rim of the marginal lappets in this specimen is bifid, recalling the appearance in the marginal lappets of *Atolla*. The exumbral surface of the marginal lappet is rough, with slight projections. Its rim is thin, the attachment and body of the lappet thick and gelatinous. The whole marginal lappet recalls those of the species *verrillii* of the genus *Atolla*. No sense bodies were seen in the alcoholic material at my control.

It is desirable that the live medusa of *Ephyroides* be studied, as the features presented by the alcoholic material are of great morphological interest. It has not seemed to me best to say anything about these questions until more is known of the anatomy of the extraordinary genus.

Family CYANEIDÆ, L. Agassiz.

CYANEA, sp.

A specimen of *Cyanea* from the Gulf Stream differs in certain respects from the *Cyanea arctica*, Per. et L., of the New England coast. It also differs from other species of this genus which have been described. With the imperfect knowledge derived from a single specimen, I hesitate to introduce a new name into the nomenclature of this genus, although there is little doubt that the specimen referred to is not the common *C. arctica*.*

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.	West longitude.
11658	2542	° 40 00 15	° 79 42 20
11669	2542	40 00 15	70 42 20

A much larger specimen than either of those mentioned above was collected in 1879, Station 378, No. 5124, off Cape Cod. This specimen resembles more closely than the others the common *C. arctica*, Per. et Les., but the mouth appendage and tentacles are missing. The forms of the marginal lappets are like those of *C. arctica*.

* One of the main differences between this *Cyanea* and *C. arctica* is found in the incisions in the marginal lappets. There are in the unknown *Cyanea* eight deep ocular incisions, eight shallower tentacular incisions, and the margin of the bell between each ocular and tentacular incision is again incised. There are therefore 32 marginal lappets.

Family PELAGIDÆ, Gegenbaur.

PELAGIA CYANELLA, P. and Les.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.			West longitude.		
		°	'	"	°	'	"
11678	2566	37	23	00	68	08	00
11656							
11688	2569	39	26	00	68	03	30
	2566	37	23	00	68	08	00
11680	2566	37	23	00	68	08	00
(6) 15225	2711	38	59	00	70	07	00
15226	2711	38	59	00	70	07	00
15236	2717	38	24	00	71	13	00
15237	2715	38	29	30	70	54	13
15239	2716	38	29	30	70	57	00
(2) 15240	2716	38	29	30	70	57	00
15245	2711-22	38°	20'	39° 13'	70° 5'	30"	72° 12'
15765	2724	36	47	00	73	25	00
15760	2724	36	47	00	73	25	00
15757	2724	36	47	00	73	25	00
15763	2724	36	47	00	73	25	00
15762	2727	36	35	00	74	03	30
15752	2730	36	42	00	74	30	00
15758	2735	37	23	00	73	53	00
15759	2731	36	45	00	74	28	30
15761	2731	36	45	00	74	28	30
15764	2731	36	45	00	74	28	30
15747	2731	36	45	00	74	28	30

CTENOPHORA.

BEROË OVATA? Br.

Catalogue number.	Station.	North latitude.			West longitude.		
		°	'	"	°	'	"
11658	2563	39	18	30	71	23	30
11659	2542	40	00	15	70	42	20
11842	2563	39	18	30	71	23	30
	2575	41	07	00	65	26	30

CALLIANIRA, sp.?

Station 2585.

This is the first record of this genus from the Gulf Stream.
CAMBRIDGE, MASS., May 27, 1887.

EXPLANATION OF THE PLATE.

PEGANTHA, sp. incog.

- FIG. 1. View of Pegantha from the side.
FIG. 2. View of Pegantha from aboral region.

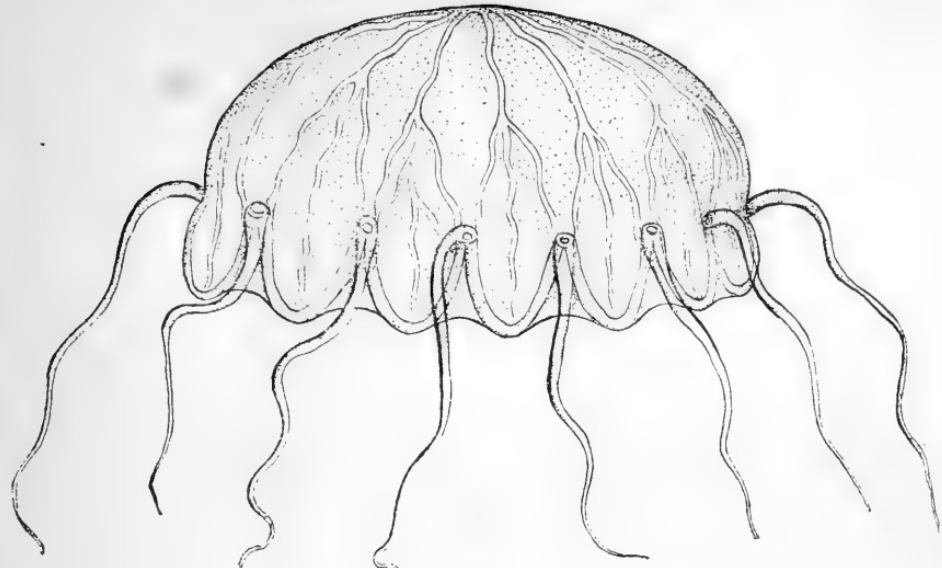


Fig. 1.

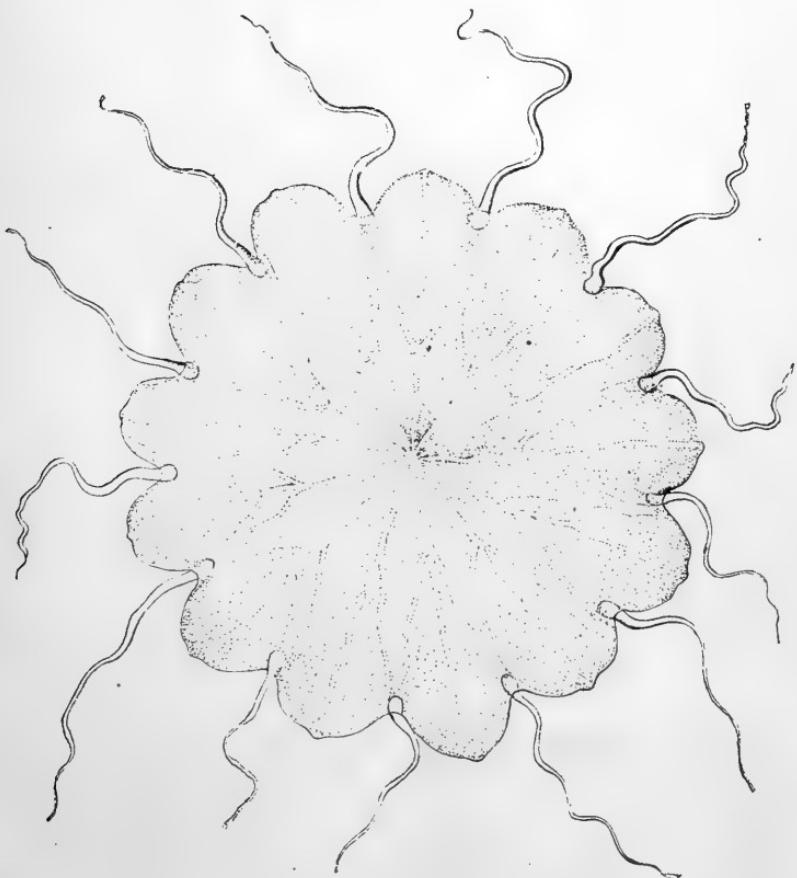
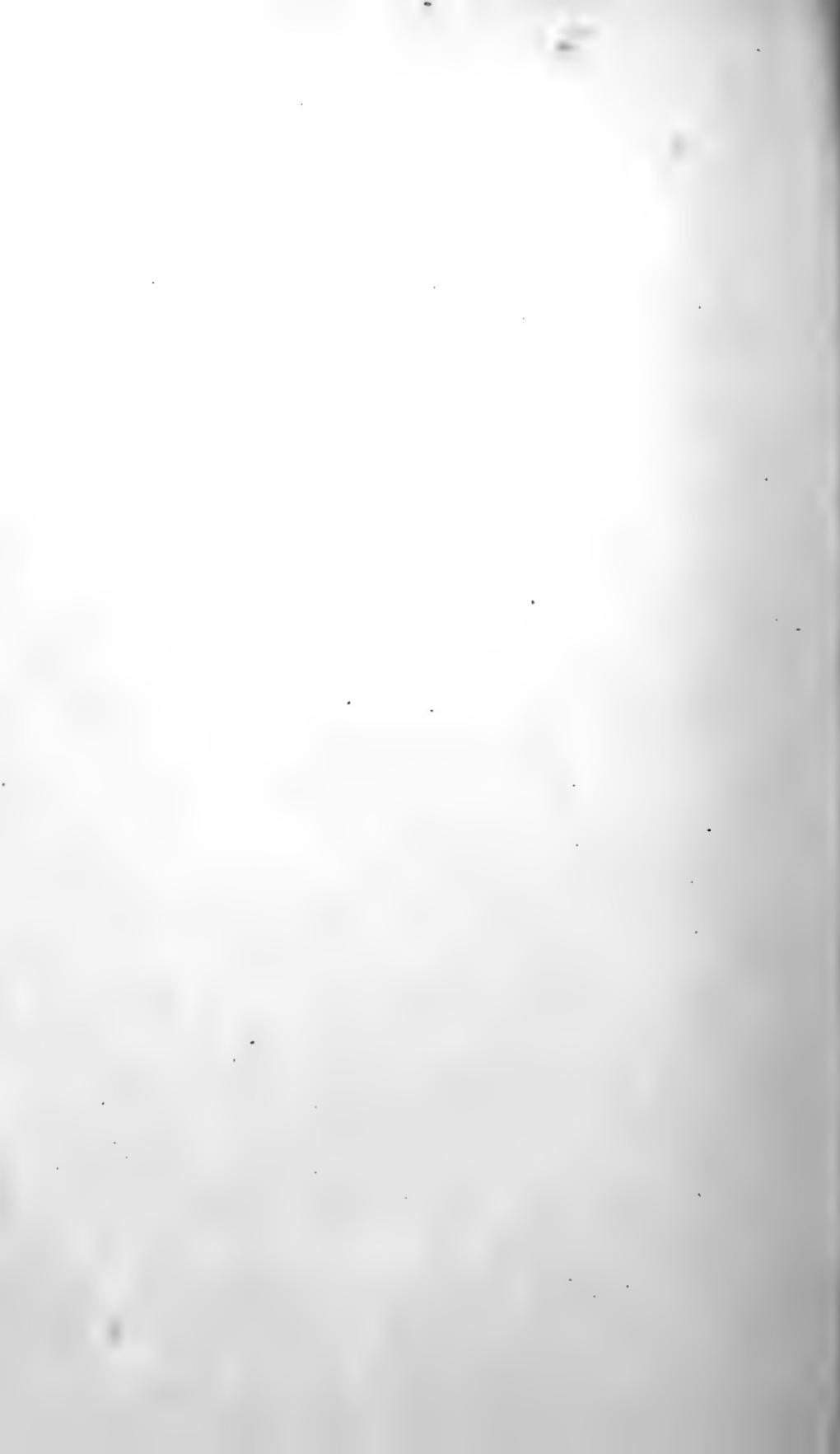


Fig. 2.



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